

THE SOCIAL STUDIES



Continuing

The Historical Outlook

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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

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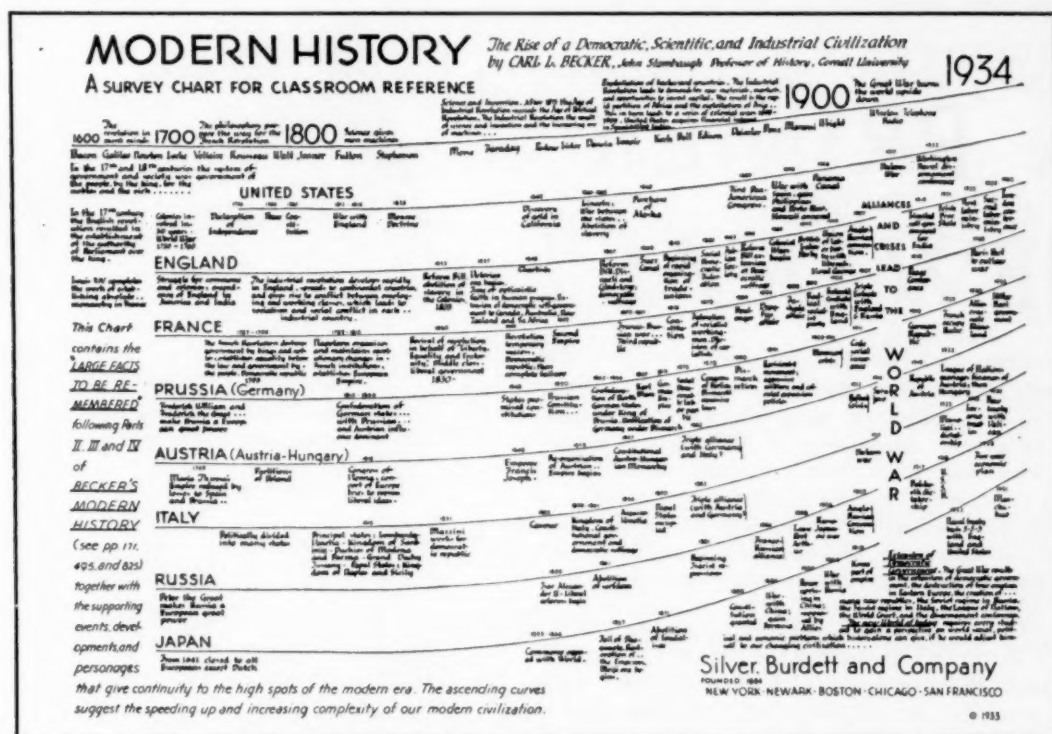
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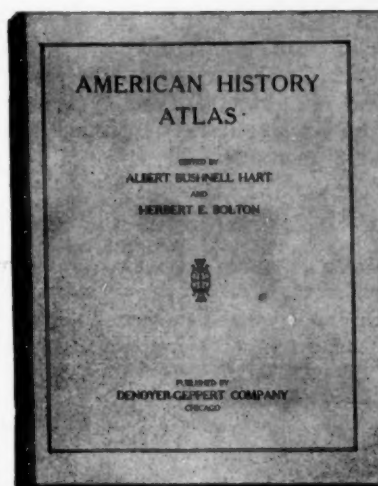
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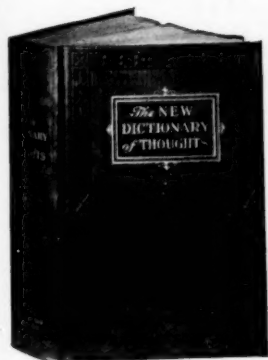
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The Social Studies

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VOLUME XXV, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1934

A Working Philosophy for the Social Studies

RONALD V. SIRES

Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana

Anyone who is anxious for guidance as to what are the fundamental objectives for the teaching of the social studies in secondary schools will soon learn that there is little unanimity of opinion on the matter. A discussion of general objectives at a conference of teachers, critics, or supervisors will reveal at times almost hopeless divergences of opinion as to what teachers in the field ought to be trying to do. Perhaps we are agreed that a rote memorization of isolated and unrelated facts from past history is a waste of time, but if we go beyond that point we meet with strenuous opposition to almost every statement that is made. If we are not agreed as to general objectives, how can we expect agreement as to the content of the work?

It is not the purpose of this paper to attempt a complete statement of objectives in the teaching of the social studies, but rather to state a few of them in such a form as will draw forth criticism and evaluation such as will help teachers in their thinking.

It is no doubt a fair criticism of the high schools of our country that they turn out graduates who are, in the large, helpless before a world which they do not understand. Due partly to the departmentalization of knowledge, partly to the narrow intellectual life of the teachers and the officers, and partly to the habit of underestimating the intellectual capabilities of people of high school age, our secondary schools are turning out graduates many of whom are suffering from severe cases of intellectual and social infantilism, who, not seeing any particular meaning in their work other than making a living, take refuge in amusements which cause them to forget their incapacities. We find in high schools very little spontaneous seeking after knowledge and understanding, and what little venture-

someness there is too often regimented into an organization, which soon becomes formalized and perhaps eventually becomes purely social and gastronomic in its interests. The average high school graduate belongs to an organization and has an indifferent attitude toward knowledge either theoretical or practical, and becomes an easy prey to the charms of commercialized amusements, and cheap slogans for the promotion of activities of a rather limited importance.

Whatever be our objectives for the social studies in particular or for education in general, they must be such as will tend to meet the situation which I have attempted to describe. The problem is indeed a complex one and cannot be solved by a given group of teachers nor yet by the schools alone. It is inherent in American life as a whole, and must be looked upon as educational in the larger sense of the word. The schools are but one expression of our desire to direct social progress; but they ought, on the other hand, to be expected to be leaders in attacking the problems faced by the whole community.

I. UNDERSTANDING OF THE PRESENT

We ought first to be aiming to develop in the student an intelligent and sympathetic understanding of the world in which he finds himself. Life ought to be for him a unified experience, yet he ought to be able to analyze the various types of human activity—economic, social, political, religious, aesthetic—and to see how one influences the others in daily life. The treatment ought to be functional rather than static, with the theoretical aspects subordinated for most pupils. The danger is that once we say that our attempt is to help pupils understand the *present* world, some will immediately jump to the conclusion that the past is largely un-

necessary in the process. The experimental philosophy, by the statement that truth grows out of actual experience, may seem, by implication, to lend support to the view that a study of the past is of limited value in the educative process. The emphasis on the practical and usable, moreover, encourages teachers in the view that the social studies should specialize on the present and on methods of adapting oneself to it or of improving it. From this point it would not be difficult to allow the teaching of the social sciences to be dominated either by a narrow desire to preserve all of our present social and economic arrangements or by an uncritical longing for sudden change.

Neither is necessary. We should study the past functionally, in a sympathetic spirit toward other peoples and times, with a view to tracing the strands that go to make up our own social fabric. Sympathetic understanding and intelligent criticism free from cynicism, should be our aim. It is not necessary for the school to tell a pupil what he ought to believe about the tariff, the war debts, or the World Court. He should draw his own conclusions after a thorough and factual study of a situation, whereupon he should be able to say that he believes thus and so because he has waded through the material which makes it possible for him to have an opinion. We ought not make the mistake of leading pupils to the belief that "one person's opinion is as good as another's," at least when one person is informed and the other is not. From the standpoint of social science, the pupil ought to have a knowledge of the ways in which man has attempted to express himself individually and socially, and solve his individual and social problems—from the art of caves of Altamira to the work of the League of Nations. If the work of teaching has been well done, the chances are greatly increased that the pupil's points of view will have more meaning, and that he will be more tolerant with those who disagree with him.

I have said that a pupil ought to come to have some understanding of the various types of human activity, but that list ought to be subdivided so as to show the utter complexity of human interests. We need to develop in students the idea that the many sidedness of life, and the ramifications of every problem, conspire to make it very difficult to say that a given course of action is right and another wrong. A tariff act may be the product of both the conscientious efforts of public well-wishers and the self-seeking activities of lobbyists; a great patriot may help found a republic which later turns to democratic forms, and yet be skeptical of what he calls the "mob"; a religion may have objectionable features and yet contribute something worthwhile to the world. We could continue with examples of the

mixture of "good" and "bad" in both men and institutions. If the pupil gets the point he will tend to become increasingly free from making snap judgments, and from assuming that what does not belong to his framework of experience ought therefore to be condemned. If the teaching material is presented in such a way that relationships are shown and the implications of history for social problems are suggested, then there is less reason for changing from the present history—"problems of democracy" set-up to a unified course in the social studies in the senior high school.

And where does vocational guidance enter into our scheme of things? If the aim is to give to the pupil an intelligent understanding of the world in which he is to do his work, we ought also to help him choose for himself the profession for which he is best fitted and aid him in seeing the meaning of that profession in the social framework. A life work ought to be more than a method of making a livelihood; it ought, like a religious or political loyalty, involve ideals and standards; it ought to be socially constructive. Whether the pupil becomes an artist or a professional man, he ought to enter on his work with the zest of one who has found a forward-looking task to perform, not with the whinings of one who does not know why he has to work. Throughout our work of guidance we ought to keep constantly in mind that our economic life is not stable. A person who has "found" his profession may discover that a mechanical invention has deprived him of his work, and at such times his greatest need will be, not mechanical skill of a specialized nature, but patience, originality, and adaptability.

We are at present in a period of unprecedented pessimism in national and international life. Perhaps the Americans are too pessimistic if their lot is compared with that of the Europeans. American glumness at the present time is a counterbalance to American optimism and self-love before the crash in 1929. Both extremes are not justified by our knowledge of the past, for some depressions have lasted longer than the present one, and prosperity has never been perpetual. If one were to believe everything he hears, he might assume that we were on the verge of a world catastrophe that would end all civilization within the space of a few years. Those who are the owners of large amounts of wealth fear a Bolshevik invasion of the United States, if not by armies, at least by ideas. Others, who are tired of "the reign of wealth and plutocracy," welcome drastic changes in our economic and social order. It is very probable that neither group will witness sudden and sweeping reforms in our fundamental set-up. For our purposes here, the point is that a knowledge of the past provides an intelligent counterweight against undue pessimism

or optimism. Neither the Golden Age nor the End of the World seems to come when prophets announce its approach.

II. THE CLAIMS OF TRUTH

The next aim in the teaching of the social studies is the development of an attitude in which the claims of truth take precedence over the claims of special and vested interests of whatever variety. It is an attitude which grows out of, or rather is a part of the method of approach. Anyone who has taught high school or college students is aware of the extent to which their opinions are part of an ironclad system, all of which, they think, will be destroyed if one part is removed. They are the recipients of a cultural heritage which has been handed down from generation to generation and which has been but slightly changed by logical analysis in the schools. It involves certain pretty well-defined views as to the origin of life, the hereafter, moral conduct and its rewards, the place of one's country in the life of the world, and the heroes of the past, especially those who have emerged in time of war. Too largely have the schools failed whenever their subject matter has involved these fundamentals of belief; the pupil has not been forced to put his accepted notions to the test of proof by reading or by experience. As far as school is concerned, there have been two separate parts of his life—the subject matter of his “lessons” on the one hand, and his daily, unreasoned activity on the other, each becoming weak in meaning because of lack of contact with the other. When they have met face to face, the opinions received through the cultural heritage usually have won.

One difficulty is that much of the discussion in which a young person takes part is carried on in places where emotion rules, or where one is *expected* to accept a given view without a demur. The classroom ought to be a place for a cold analysis of facts which are not easily molded into a preconceived view; it ought to provide opportunity for the expression of views which in the halls of conformity would be jeered down as blasphemy. There ought to be operative in the classroom not only the moral imperative in matters of honesty, promptness, and fairplay, but an intellectual categorical imperative which demands that truth be accepted, no matter how much havoc it play with cherished beliefs.

But, says someone, suppose such a procedure would bring upon the teacher the wrath of the community. Perhaps it will; yet I am convinced that a sympathetic approach to those problems of history and anthropology which have caused misunderstanding between teacher and community will in the long run yield worthwhile results. I insist on the word *sympathetic*. The teacher must remember

that certain ideas about the past are adorned with the halo of sanctity and must be dealt with gently. I have had people in the senior high school read up-to-date material on the American Revolution and then come to a discussion group with notions which were neither stated nor implied in the reading. It is interesting to note that some pupils who were unborn at the time of the World War will insist that Germany, led by the Kaiser, led a brutal and premeditated attack upon the rest of the world in 1914. Such ideas are difficult of eradication, but the attempt is infinitely worth the effort.

When the historian says that he is seeking for truth, he does not mean quite the same thing as does the economist or the sociologist. The historian is attempting to find out exactly what happened in the past, while the economist is trying to determine what are the laws which determine the actions of men with respect to the getting and using of wealth. Or, if he is the kind of economist who wishes to arrive at a conclusion which will be of direct benefit to society, he may try to advise his country or some other group as to what will *work* best under a given set of conditions—that is, what is truth under these conditions—a pragmatist's kind of truth. Neither definition of truth is absolutely complete in itself, but one should supplement the other. If a class in high school economics were trying to determine whether the issue of unsupported paper money were advisable or not, history would be able to supply some of the information upon which a reasonable conclusion might be made. This is not to say, however, that we can hope for a satisfactory philosophy of history, or use history as a supply of materials for the construction of over-confident prophecies on the future of the race.

If we make an honest attempt to know the “truth” about the past and about current problems and succeed in getting the pupils to have the same attitude, will all concerned be any better off? Why should a pupil have to know that John Hancock disobeyed the Navigation Laws? Isn't it just as well to allow patriotism to continue to be supported by a few myths? To one trained in the scientific method the question is childish. Would anyone want the schools to teach that the world is flat, when we believe that we have unimpeachable evidence to the contrary? There is something within us that revolts at allowing an untruth to be taught when we recognize it as such. I was once talking with a resident of Philadelphia, who said that some researcher in colonial history had disproved some story that Philadelphians loved to believe and which seemed to bolster up people's patriotism. “Why,” he said in effect, “isn't it all right to allow the old story to be told if it strengthens the patriotism of school children?” It was a question honestly asked, despite

its naïveté. Perhaps the answer would be that a patriotism that depends upon a falsehood is not worth having; perhaps a patriotism that keeps itself informed as to past and present is more effective and constructive patriotism than one that does not. Perhaps a few upsets for a pupil will set him to thinking as he never thought before and will help make him into something more than a sideline rooter for his country.

If a high school pupil once learns the attitude of the truth seeker, he will become, more than formerly, immune to those half-truths that line the pages of books and newspapers and which determine the opinions of so many readers. Stated briefly, our aim is to decrease the gullibility of the student and make him the more proof against the unreasoned propaganda of either the majority or the minority. He will perhaps be delivered from the disease of non-rational conformity, the principal symptom of which is the chanting of slogans and formulas which do not go to the bottom of things.

III. CAN ATTITUDES BE TAUGHT?

The public pays for the efforts put forth by the school system. The public schools grow out of the needs of the people, are in the long run manned by the people, and should be operated for the good of the largest number of the people. It is therefore incumbent on them to do everything reasonable to develop those qualities which over a long period of time make for the greatest possible amount of coöperation for the worthwhile ends. The school ought to be a civic as well as an academic and vocational institution. The teaching staff of a given school ought to be able to see pupils grow in ability to coöperate and in the art of knowing the difference between vegetables and weeds in matters of conduct. Pupils ought to be conscious that they are dealing with plans of action and in modes of living happily with other people, as well as with academic materials or the skills of a trade. They ought to be helped to live more effectively and more happily with people of different temperaments from their own, while at the same time developing the creative spirit in matters of conduct—the true foundation of moral progress.

The work is a difficult one and requires great adaptability and originality on the part of teachers and principals. We must always remember that anything approaching Sundayschoolishness is exceedingly offensive to pupils of high school age. It is frankly impossible to be harping continually on the fundamental virtues. We can do a great deal by implication. We can give measured praise for any acts which show that the pupil has caught the spirit of good citizenship. We can give our support to suggestions coming from the pupils when they

reveal a concern for the good of a group. We can use biography in such a way as to stimulate a reasoned and critical emulation of the heroes of the past. We can use extra-class activities for the development of the best qualities of the citizen. We can direct the academic work of the classroom in such a way as to insist on thoroughness, promptness, and honesty, and at the same time endeavor to bring out those creative qualities which ought to be a part of our concept of true citizenship.

Assuming the attitudes and qualities which we consider to be desirable, shall we pick our materials in the hope that certain teaching materials will bring out (assuming the teaching to be good) those attitudes and qualities? It is clear that social science materials relate particularly to the people acting in groups and that many opportunities present themselves for the development of desirable attitudes. We must not, however, let ourselves be hurried to the conclusion that if we wish to produce in the pupil such and such attitudes we must use such and such teaching materials. Shall we remove *Ivanhoe* from the reading list for literature simple because we do not want to develop in adolescents a craving for military adventure? If we take the extreme position that the subject matter must be minutely determined by the highly specific aims and objectives (in the case being the qualities of a citizen), will we not arrive at the place where (for instance) we teach a history that has so suffered from deletion, emendation, and foot-noting that it is no longer history, but a series of moralistic teachings? And will not the studying of current problems resolve itself into the choice of certain materials bearing upon social situations, chosen in such a manner that the "solution" is implicit in the statement of the problem? It would be far wiser to deal with the past and present in a very objective way; to show in our teaching the *changing* standards of conduct; to reveal the mixed motives that have actuated the greatest of heroes and the noblest of organizations. In so doing we would do much to develop a moral hardihood which would be far superior to the products of moralistic and sometimes near-homiletic teaching, and we would at the same time have the satisfaction of knowing that we had not distorted truth for the purpose of building qualities of character.

A second danger lurks around the corner. In attempting to teach the qualities of citizenship—and we usually think of those which make coöperation and group action possible—we must distinguish between coöperation and deadlevel conformity. A teacher once said that we must help pupils to keep from making fools of themselves. That would depend on the important fact of whether the majority were making fools out of

themselves. We must remember that in the last analysis moral progress is creative and not imitative. "Creative activity" can be moral as well as artistic and imaginative. It is the imaginative moral artist who makes for wholesome change and we must not fail to find him and encourage him. We must not let ourselves use the social studies of the majority, for in so doing we may cause the less desirable qualities of American life to multiply. It would be wise to insist that the desire for moral achievement and the desire for "the facts"—that is, the truth—should walk hand-in-hand in the interest of creative social living. Somewhere in our thinking there must be a successful compromise between the social "one" and the individual "many."

It is interesting to note the extent to which the Puritan insistence on the practical and usable has influenced educational thought in certain quarters. Some demand that children should be taught only what they are sure to need in life, and if one were to take the suggestion uncritically he would teach little that would not have a bread-and-butter value. Suppose we construct a curriculum based on what we take to be the actual daily needs (interpreted narrowly) of the pupil. We should teach him enough so that he could understand the principal institutions of his community,—the school, the state, the family, houses of correction, and the principal economic organizations. He must not be given many "facts," as they will cloud his mind so much that he will lose the principle with which they deal. He must be taught the nature of some of the professions and perhaps be guided in the choice of one for himself. In the high school as now organized, the social studies would take care of most of the work just suggested, except that home economics and industrial arts teachers would make a large contribution in the field of vocational guidance. As for the materials for the social studies in such a curriculum, it is plain that they would best be comprehended under such courses as go by the name of community civics and problems of democracy. Would "history" enter into such a curricular organization? The natural tendency would be to reduce the historical content to a minimum or at least to subordinate it to that kind of study which specializes in current problems and current events. The danger is that the teacher will use historical material for no other purpose than to explain some current phenomenon, neglecting other possibilities of the material. One high school principal, when asked how he would teach the required six weeks of state history in the junior high school, said that he would have the pupils work for that length of time on the state parks!—and the state has a reasonably heroic past! One teacher, having a sincere desire to imbue her pupils with a desire for

peace, seriously questions whether she can teach *Ivanhoe*! Moral seriousness and unimaginativeness make a poor contribution! We need earnestness, but we must not deny to pupils the right to read some of the classics which do not portray exactly the world that we desire.

If it is desirable that the work in social studies should be correlated with professional subjects, it is equally desirable that it should be correlated with literature. Let us take the course in world history to show what are the possibilities for interrelations between history and literature. While the origin of man is being considered in the social studies field, the same group of students could well be doing an English unit on the origin of writing. During the study of the civilizations in the Nile and Tigris-Euphrates valleys, the English classes could be using such materials as *The Precepts of Ptah-Hotep* (here the opportunity for the discussion of moral standards should not be neglected), the *Hymn to the Nile*, the Akkadian *Hymn to the Setting Sun*, and other selections. Greek literature offers similar possibilities in the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey*, and in some of the easier plays, such as *The Trojan Women*. For literature by or about Romans we have *The Lays of Ancient Rome*, the *Aeneid*, *Ben Hur*, *Quo Vadis*, and some of the writings of the Stoic philosophers; while for the Middle Ages we can use the *Song of Roland*, parts of the *Divine Comedy*, the *Canterbury Tales*, the Arthurian materials, *Don Quixote*, and perhaps parts of the chronicles of the Crusades and the Hundred Years' War. The evident purpose of such correlation is not primarily to help students "to solve the problems of the industrial age," but rather to stimulate their imagination in such a way that they can re-create the experiences of people in other times and places. We must remember that it is the task of the school not only to help pupils to solve moral problems directly, but to aid them in satisfying their imaginative cravings—and in so doing we will be helping to make possible a more artistic use of spare time on the part of young people. Not all of life may be comprehended under the caption of problem solving. The use of the school as a manufactory for "solutions" to this and that "problem" can soon become a dull and sterile business.

Let us imagine that the machine technology makes it possible for the average person to live reasonably well on four hours of work each day, and that the system for the distribution of wealth allows the laborer to receive his portion of the benefit of such an increase in productivity. How ought the worker to spend the extra time granted to him? A part ought to be spent in technical study and practise for the purpose of rising higher in his chosen field. Part ought to be spent in develop-

ing a larger interest in community affairs, an interest which he does not now show because of the necessity of hard work. A part of the extra time ought to be given to amusement, by which physical strength would return and the emotional life be straightened out. He ought to have had such a training in school as will make it possible for him to create a good deal of his own amusement, and to live an artistic kind of life. He ought to have many kinds of interests. He ought to be able to develop his individuality through books, and through music and art. He ought to know enough of the past to have the conviction that in expressing the better part of himself he is in company with the finer souls of the ages. When in company with other people he should not throw cold water on an intelligent conversation because he is not conversant with the fundamentals of the various attempts of man to understand and to regulate his life. It is reasonable to believe that such a training for high school graduates is just as necessary as one purely vocational in its nature, or one which reaches toward a "solution" of this or that social problem. If we win for the poor an equitable portion of the wealth of the world, how will they use it if they buy lithographed pictures or attend nothing better than the average movie—if they are esthetically inane? A coördinate development of ethical judgment and of true artistic ability (in the sense of artistic living) must accompany any democratization in the distribution of wealth.

We look for utopias and New Jerusalems. They never come except in part, and we continue to struggle and to hope. The Jews have had their Messianic visions, the socialists have sketched their ideal economic society, and certain religious groups preach the imminent second coming of Christ in the body. It seems as though much of the Messianic propensity of the American people has gone into education. We are convinced—and no doubt rightly—that we are in a race between education and chaos. We are assembling our resources for an attack on gangsterism and civic dishonesty. Well and good. But what of the soldiers? How do they spend their time when not on duty? How do they entertain themselves? What will they do when they are bored with the ideas of fighting and of doing things? How do they act when they are convinced that the majority is wrong? What do they read in their off-duty hours? Suppose the enemy retreats—do they have the flexibility of mind to know what to do next? Do they have individuality as well as the ability to cooperate? Are they constantly creating new standards and ideals? Suppose the enemy wins—what then? Suppose that our civilization is devastated—can they take refuge in their own inner resources?

We are in an age of dissolution and disillusion-

ment. We pointed once with pride to our achievements in the manipulation of things. Size, speed, and mechanical perfection were our watchwords, but now we are being forced in upon ourselves. If we find there nothing but threadbare slogans and the after-effects of promotion campaigns, then we are in a sorry predicament. If we have inward strength and adaptability, there are hopes for us. If we have built up a unified, adjusted, colorful, many-sided personality, one which gives expression to a sense of the beautiful, which develops a feeling for proportion and a longing for true inner worth without regard to public opinion, if our ethical and esthetic natures are in a harmonious relationship, then we may look to the future with a large degree of hope. And this is the true background for the social studies—government, economic life, geography, biography, history, vocational life, and whatever gives us new light on man acting in groups. Any onesided theory will be very unfortunate for those who will be expected not only to "solve problems," but to *live* in the next half century.

Arthur Merton's article on Egypt Today in the October *Fortnightly* was in press when Sidky Pasha resigned the premiership. In view of this sequel, the article itself is historical rather than merely political. He calls attention to the admirable work done by Sidky Pasha since he took office in June, 1930, when his firmness stultified the revolutionary efforts of the Wafd, and his financial acumen has mitigated the effects of acute economic distress. Within a year he restored Parliamentary government and consolidated the various departments of government. Then came his various illnesses superinduced by overwork, the decrease in foreign confidence and gradual demoralization as his control lessened. Mr. Merton predicts that in case of Sidky Pasha's withdrawal the return of the Wafd would be most disastrous for Egypt and Great Britain. It would mean a revival of the era of chaos and disorder and the mad spending to which he put an end three years ago. Also it would mean a demand for a return of the constitution of 1933 an eventuality which no one in either country wishes to see. And in such a contingency England must intervene as guide, philosopher, friend, as counterpoise and even as dictator, which is what the majority of Egyptians desire in their inmost hearts to see, though none of them dare to say so.

Two articles of historical importance, but in no way connected with the modern scene are those in the *English Historical Review* for October on Stephen Langton. Kathleen Major discusses the great prelate's household, where some of the most brilliant men of the day foregathered, and Professor F. M. Fowicke adds a bibliographical note on recent works of Stephen Langton.

Nazi Education in Germany

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Long before Hitler and his cohorts rose to eminence they were planning far-reaching educational changes. Some of these have been recorded in the Chancellor's book, *Mein Kampf*, and in the last few months many have been translated into reality. Indeed, during their short reign thus far the Hitlerites have vigorously been injecting their policies into every domain of education. All schools, private as well as public, from the elementary school through the university, have been affected.

One of the first educational decrees under the new régime appeared March 17, 1933. Significantly enough, it holds that "Germanic culture must be treated thoroughly." The fact that "in the school of the Marxian system German pre-history found no fitting place" is to be remedied by an increased and respectable attention to the early Germans. The practice of writers ever since Tacitus to label these primitive Teutons as barbarians must be opposed. In its subsequent elaborate instructions concerning history textbooks, the Ministry of the Interior re-affirms this stand: Germanic pre-history is "pre-eminently national learning (*Wissenschaft*)," than which "no other is better suited to counteract the traditional undervaluation of the cultural heights of our ancestors." Stress must be put on "the national idea in contrast to the international, whose lingering poison for more than a hundred years has been threatening to destroy the German soul."

The same ministerial instructions give considerable attention to the all-important question of race: "From primitive times through all later millennia to the present the significance of race must be given a fitting consideration." Also: "The history of Europe is the work of Nordic peoples . . ." and "the highly developed Nordic basal language has crowded out the languages of the other European races up to a few remnants." Furthermore: "Not until the work of the originally Nordic Hindoos, Medes, Persians as well as the Hittites, was the history of western Asia definitely influenced. The pupil must experience the fates of these peoples as those of his own blood, who in the end are destroyed because of the predominance of foreign racial blood, but only after they (i.e., the Nordic Hindoos, etc.) had created high civilizations in India and Persia." In studying the ancient Greeks "once again it should be stressed that we are dealing with our closest racial brethren." Both the history of Greece and that of northern Italy are to be studied with

Central Europe as a starting point "so that the racial relationship will be felt."

Naturally, a significant place is assigned by the Nazis to modern history. "The last two decades of our own times are to be a leading chapter in the study of history. The monstrous experience of the World War with the heroic struggle of the German people against a world of foes, the disintegration of our power of resistance through forces hostile to the fatherland, the humiliation of our people by the Versailles dictate and the subsequent breakdown of the liberalistic-Marxian philosophy are to be treated just as thoroughly as the nation's nascent awakening from the Ruhr struggle to the penetration of the National Socialist concept of freedom and the restoration of the German nation on the Day of Potsdam."

Interesting is the way these general ministerial directions are being applied in practice. The Hamburg school officials, for example, have prepared a detailed program for the guidance of history teachers. Almost melodramatic, this is divided into two parts—"Germany in Chains" and "Germany Awakes." The first part is further divided into such topics as the War Breakdown, Peace Dictate, Nation Without Honor, Nation Without Territory, Nation Without Defense, Pillage of the Nation (by the Allies), Temporary Structure of the Nation (i.e., the Republic), and Tribute Vassalage. Under these headings the children are taught among other things that "despite the breakdown of the allied (Central Powers) there was a heroic final struggle and an orderly retreat on the western front." The army was dissolved "by dagger thrusts from home." Concerning the Revolution which generated the Republic, the Hamburg teacher is enjoined to "contrast the November crime as a Marxian revolt, or disintegration, with the National Socialist Revolution or reorganization."

Under the section entitled "Germany Awakes" the Hamburg pupils are taught about the rise and achievements of Hitler and his party. "The German post-war struggle for freedom is to be treated in the spirit of Adolf Hitler's book *Mein Kampf*." The leaders, symbols, program and organization of the Nazi party are to be studied. Special attention must be bestowed on the fundamental Nazi tenets of "nation, race, culture, state and church." While a limited number of dates is still to be learned, the memorization of maxims is preferable—such maxims, as for example, "German the Saar

—forever and ever!" (*Deutsch die Saar—immerdar!*) and "We need colonies!" (*Wir brauchen Kolonien!*). That history in the guise of "Germany Awakes" is national and political propaganda is plain. As a matter of fact the Nazis are quite frank about this, as the following sentences from the Hamburg instructions show: "The primacy of politics, in history especially, must come to the relief of pedagogy. Propaganda and education today operate together. . . ." And "Out of enthusiasm for the national movement historical discernment is to lead to a determination to co-operate politically." And again: "Since these contemporary themes serve particularly to educate the German nationally and politically, the teacher must lead his pupils to take definite positions, which from an external as well as internal political standpoint will clearly contrast 'friend and foe.' At the same time the educational authorities expect every teacher to become positively identified with National Socialism."

Almost as significant as history in the German's national and political education is geography. Thus, the decree of March 17th, besides stressing the importance of German pre-history, also lamented that German children often knew more about foreign lands than about the fatherland; and that too often they were inclined to over-rate the former at the expense of the latter. To attend to these matters the decree of June 7, 1933, was especially promulgated. This regulates study-trips in Germany and abroad. The latter "may be undertaken only by such students who have previously participated in trips through their native land . . . and who have acquired an adequate understanding of their own fatherland, and who possess the requisite maturity to consider foreign peoples critically." Pupils are to be encouraged to travel in Germany "to gain an impressionable picture of the German native land." Trips to East Prussia are especially recommended due "to the peculiar situation of the border lands and the educational value of such trips." Another function of the study tour abroad is "to create a closer relationship between the (native) German youth and that of German blood living in the border and foreign lands, and at the same time to give our pupils a lasting impression of the life struggle of our brothers residing in border and foreign soils." To facilitate such an understanding a series of texts called "The German in Foreign Lands" (*Der Deutsche in Auslande*) has been published. Some of the titles in this series are: "The German in Peru," "The German in Mexico," "The German in the Volga Land," "The German in Transcaucasia," and so on. The final goal of any study-trip "is an increased national consciousness."

Many teachers of the republican era were inclined toward pacifism and international understanding. The Weimar Constitution, as a matter of fact, recommended "international conciliation" as one of the school's leading goals. But the Nazis have other ideas on this matter. The international attitude of teachers, they feel, has deprived "our World War dead of the fitting respect which is due them." A decree of February 25, 1933, provides "that teachers should constantly keep the mighty deeds of our World War heroes before our boys and girls," and that "our warriors . . . went to their death because of their boundless love of the people and the fatherland." Furthermore, "the conviction is to be awakened in them (i.e., the pupils) that they must serve their fatherland with their life and property."

Under the Nazis physical training takes on an importance of the first calibre. What is known as *Geländesport* has been made compulsory in all schools. This is a form of athletics in the open country and includes marching, running, leaping over obstacles and so on. These activities are officially commended as "a means of accustoming youth to order and discipline."

Several decrees affecting secondary education have been issued. As in the lower schools instruction in German, history, and geography is to be more stressed than heretofore. "The national will is to receive that strengthening which he (the student) himself has so long desired, but which he never dared to display openly," says the *Pädagogisches Zentralblatt* in its analysis of the new regulations. Interesting to note is the fact that those secondary schools which are state-operated institutions are now to be run as "National Socialist places of education" (*Erziehungsstätten*). In Prussia, moreover, the Ministry of Education has issued instructions for the re-establishment of the former cadet schools at Potsdam, Köslin and Plön, of which the latter has now been opened. During the republican régime these schools had been transformed into up-to-date, progressive boarding schools which put a premium on the student's fullest individual development. Quite naturally, the re-established institutions are to give a prominent place to military training. That these schools have an important place in the Nazi scheme of things is plain since "the students of these institutions are to be called upon some time to complete the conception of the National Socialist State in the sense of the National Socialist Revolution." In these schools "the educators will be subjected to a particularly careful selection." Their "thoughts, feeling and desires must fundamentally be rooted in National Socialist ideology."

An innovation in German secondary education

is the half year of voluntary labor. Open to all secondary school graduates before they begin their higher studies or before they enter upon a vocation, this is approximately a six-months' service period, four months of which are devoted to labor and the remaining time to physical training. In the main the student's labor takes the form of land reclamation projects. At least a month and a half are definitely set apart for concentrated physical training. According to the Ministry of the Interior "this training begins with a testing of the physical capacities gained in the period of labor service. The participants will be schooled in *Geländesport* with drills and marches . . . and exercises of all kinds as well as shooting weapons of small calibre." The students live together in barracks.

One of the most significant laws affecting German education came into being April 25, 1933. This restricts enrolment in all schools, elementary as well as higher. At the beginning of every school year the state authorities are to decide "how many pupils may be admitted to each school and how many students to each university faculty." To check the overcrowding of professions the number of students must be decreased. Furthermore, according to Paragraph 4, in admitting new students to a given school the authorities must see that the number of German non-Aryans "shall not exceed the percentage of non-Aryans in the German population." This figure is determined by the national authorities. Incidentally, "the law applies uniformly to public and private schools." That the law is anti-Semitic is of course plain. In the words of the *Pädagogisches Zentralblatt*, "The predominance of the Jew in the leading state positions is hereby broken; for it is absurd that Germans should be ruled by those of an alien race who have only guest privileges in our country. An education for German national consciousness is possible only through genuine German citizens."

To assure itself of a body of sympathetic teachers, able and willing to teach in the Nazi spirit, the new government has thoroughly overhauled its training of teachers. By ministerial decree the republican normal school, known as the Pedagogic Academy (*Pädagogische Akademie*), has been rechristened the Higher School for Teacher Training (*Hochschule für Lehrerbildung*). The discarded name, consisting as it did of two words of non-German origin, was not looked upon with favor. More important, however, than this baptismal change is the fact that "the teacher is no longer to be trained as a citizen of the world who was to educate youth for the international ideals of humanity, but instead he is to become a genuine teacher, bound to the fatherland, who will lead youth to a real German national consciousness."

Though the teaching profession in Germany is sadly overcrowded, the authorities are planning to open several new normal schools. One of these has already been established. Located at Lauenburg in Pomerania, "it is to become a cultural-political bulwark against the Corridor." In his address at the opening ceremonies of the new school, Minister of Education Rust epitomized the Reich's new policy in teacher training. "Teachers," he said, "must know that their pupils are to be judged according to race. Our teachers will learn something about our boundaries, study races and military geography instead of social and industrial sciences and novelties." The contemporary German elementary school teacher is "not to grasp at cultural forms which must be rejected by National Socialism as unsuitable." Furthermore, the teacher is to be prepared for a modern German school which "is to function in the spirit of our great field-gray army and is to see that a whole people in its totality is brought up with this thought in mind." The fact that normal school students wear the Nazi brown shirt is significant. These future teachers, in the words of Minister Rust, are "the Storm Troop leaders of German national education." In July the Hessian Ministry of Education transformed these words into reality by announcing that "only he may become an educator who up to his 35th year . . . served in the ranks of the Storm Troops. Unless this requirement is fulfilled no one may expect to be called into the service of the state."

The Nazi state has not overlooked the higher learning. That Jewish and pacifist professors have been dismissed from their academic posts is of course no news to Americans; nor is the fact that many of these men are of scholarly distinction and achievement. University autonomy, for generations a proud treasure of German higher education, has been quietly surrendered. The head of a higher school is still the rector, but instead of being chosen by his colleagues he is now appointed by the Ministry. What may be expected as a consequence of this new situation is plainly visible in the appointment of Ernst Krieck to the rectorship of Frankfurt. Called to the faculty, Krieck was simultaneously appointed its head, even though he lacks a regular academic degree. For a long time, however, Krieck has been a fiery and active Nazi. He believes in "the system of Potsdam and Königsberg" and is convinced that "it is not Weimar, not Paul's Church at Frankfurt with their poets, philosophers and men of learning that have created the new Germany, but rather the Prussian military spirit, the spirit of manliness, of defensive power, of discipline, honor, fealty, resignation and sacrifice." Curiously enough, these views are by no means unique among German professors. There are

of course those who disagree with the political views of the reigning Nazis; but such men, to keep their posts, must perforce remain silent. Meanwhile, many of their colleagues, having apparently accepted the Nazi educational credo, are busily engaged in organizing new courses and writing books and articles on German geography, pre-history, and race. In the latter two domains there has been a veritable avalanche of texts—though unfortunately most of them are propaganda rather than science.

That German education is something quite different from what it was during the Republican epoch is apparent. Briefly, education under the Nazis is flamboyantly nationalistic. It frankly looks upon the school as a breeding place of active nationalism—a nationalism which is eventually to restore Germany's pre-war greatness. This school obviously cannot be pacifistic; on the contrary its ideal is that of the army. All the familiar military virtues are eulogized and held up for emulation. Under the

Nazi régime, furthermore, the school has been harnessed to the political ideology of the National Socialists. Political propaganda and education have become handmaidens, and the school is expected to fashion 100 per cent Nazis. If the school is glowingly pro-Nazi, it is also emphatically anti-Marxian. Obviously vague, this term is often used by Nazi educators simply as an expression of their opposition to pedagogical principles which in the pre-Hitler era were deemed highly progressive. Under the cloak of anti-Marxism, the Nazis have ruined some of Germany's best known experimental or progressive schools. Finally, the Nazi educational program is violently pro-Nordic and anti-Semitic.

¹ Ernst Krieck, *Nationalpolitische Erziehung* (Leipzig: Armen-Verlag, 1933), 17. Listed on every Nazi educational bibliography, this book is virtually the Baedeker of Nazi educational philosophy.

Vitalizing the Teaching of History¹

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Among the trends in education in the United States during the last decade has been an increasing emphasis upon the practical and utilitarian in shaping the public school curriculum. Education has come to be regarded not as an end in itself, but as a means toward an end, and that end is a better ordered society—a society which will furnish a greater measure of social justice, and in which every individual will so function that the greatest degree of common good may be achieved.

This tendency has naturally created a lively interest in social science, inasmuch as the social studies deal with various problems of adjustment within the social order. It has led me to center my attention upon the matter of motives in the teaching of history.

Motive, I recognize at the outset, is a dangerous factor with which to conjure in the historical profession. The modern historian reviews the work of such an eminent constitutionalist as Von Holst with regret that it should have been so seriously hampered by a German's intense hatred of slavery and related institutions. The monumental work of George Bancroft accumulates dust today because he wrote with a motive—the all consuming desire that "democracy" should cover the earth.

And, if it is disastrous to write history with a motive, the possibilities of defiling the truth are still greater when it is taught with a motive. The

findings of Bessie L. Pierce, in her study of the influence of public opinion on the teaching of history in the public schools,² are suggestive of that hazard. The ridiculous antics of a former mayor of the city of Chicago in "cleansing" the city school system of alleged pro-British influence was an outgrowth of the notion that history should be taught to inculcate patriotism. A certain well known patriotic society in this country requested the authorities of the University of Michigan to dismiss Claude Van Tyne because he referred to "Tories" as "Loyalists," and ventured to tell the truth about the American Revolution. To teach the truth, the unvarnished and unadulterated truth, is the major objective of every teacher true to the profession. To depart from that goal would convert our educational system into a vicious propagandizing agency, and discourage all free and independent thinking.

Nevertheless, it is a fact that the public has insisted upon, or assented to, the inclusion of history in the public school curriculum, in the expectation that it will contribute some direct and practical benefit in the training of a better citizenry. Some doubtless expect therefrom a more fervid patriotism; some, a better knowledge of government; some, the capacity and interest for intelligently solving social, economic, and governmental problems. But whatever the view, narrow or enlightened, there is the basic idea that a knowledge of history

furnishes practical equipment for rendering a contribution to social progress.

The question then arises: Can this expectation of the public be fulfilled in the teaching of history without departing from the exacting demands of historical accuracy and impartiality? It is my conviction that the demand of the public and the concern of the professional historian and teacher are not hopelessly divergent. The truth may be presented unstintingly, and, simultaneously, the practical objectives may be attained.

To my mind, the most important motive which deserves consideration in the history classroom is the inculcation of such an understanding of the conflicting interests, motivating forces, and social adjustments of the past, as will enable a new generation intelligently to cope with current social, economic, and governmental problems. The attainment of such a goal for history requires that a knowledge of the past be related to the present, in such a way that current problems may be scientifically approached in the light of their historical background. Whether or not such an utilitarian motive can be achieved in the public schools depends entirely upon how history is taught—or perhaps I should say, upon what is taught as history.

There are two radically different concepts of the subject, and therefore two different approaches in teaching. The narrow and erroneous conception of history is a fact list arranged in chronological order. These facts are largely isolated from each other, and presented in disjointed segments, without "rhyme or reason."

The point may be illustrated by considering a specific period in American history, such as the Federalist régime from 1789 to 1801. The student is held responsible for knowing the successive presidents and vice-presidents, and perhaps the members of the first Washington cabinet. Dates and provisions of such important enactments as the Bill of Rights, the Hamiltonian financial program, the judiciary acts, the Jay treaty, the Alien and Sedition laws, and the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions are memorized, perhaps, along with the names, location, and dates of the admission of new states. The arrival and reception of Genet, the facts of the Whiskey insurrection, and the famous XYZ affair, are handled in a similar manner. Candidates and the outcome of the elections of 1796 and 1800 are reviewed in order. Finally an objective test is given, which resolves itself solely into a memory test of names, places, dates, and definitions, and then the class is ready for the next assignment. This select group may question whether or not that type of teaching is sufficiently typical to warrant discussion, but my observation, and in some cases investigation of the background of approximately

a thousand freshmen who have enrolled in my beginning survey courses, leads me to estimate that fully seventy-five per cent of history teaching in our public schools corresponds in a marked degree to that procedure.

Now certainly one cannot condemn the knowing of facts. Facts are as necessary to the understanding of history as a pile of bricks is necessary to the building of a brick house. But history is far more than a mere accumulation of facts. My objection to this presentation of the Federalist régime is two-fold: First, it involves learning by memorization, a method which is often barren of any real accomplishment. The recital of a combination of words in perfect order is a poor substitute for the grasping of ideas and relationships. The story is told of a university co-ed who was suddenly asked by her psychology professor for a definition of love. Considerably embarrassed, and in much confusion, she began thumbing the pages of her notebook, finally apprising her teacher that she had it somewhere in her notes.

Secondly, while a knowledge of the events of the Federalist administration furnishes a necessary background for an understanding of the period, the facts alone, dangling in mid-air, have no meaning and explain nothing. One wonders what percentage of the effort which goes into the educational machine, in every field of study, is lost motion. For example, how many individuals emerge from an elementary course in physics, boasting high grades, and glibly repeating physical laws, yet ready to admit under pressure that they do not know what it is all about? As I see it, one of the greatest challenges in the field of public education is so to revise our teaching practices, as to substitute for a superficial memorization of academic formulae, a genuine grasp of ideas, which will equip the student intelligently to function in society. The taxpayers of the country support free, compulsory education at no small sacrifice, and they have a right to demand the highest possible degree of efficiency. My prediction is that in the next decade educational systems will be judged less on the basis of buildings, equipment, and the common standards of instruction, and more on the basis of what exposure to the system actually does for the pupil in equipping him for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship.

Returning to my example, the Federalist administration, I note an entirely different manner of treatment, based upon the idea that history is a study of the evolution of society. The period is presented with the aim of constructing a panoramic view of American society in the critical first years of the young republic. Relationships between events are clarified, and presented upon a background of

the fundamental economic, social, and political forces operating in American life. Then, the otherwise meaningless happenings of the period take on a significance which reveals the dominant trends in the society of that day, and suggests what the future decades had in store for the nation.

Under this method of handling the subject, one would recognize, first of all, that there were two conflicting elements in the United States during the decades which witnessed the discarding of the Articles of Confederation and the launching of the new government. The Federalists were the "wise, good, and well born," inhabiting New England and the tidewater area of the south. Of English stock, they took their cue from England in matters of dress, customs, and political ideals. Occupationally, they were the bankers, the merchants, the shippers, the big slaveholding planters, the land speculators, and security holders. They distrusted the masses, and denounced the advocates of democratic rule as "mobocrats."

As the French Revolution broke out in Europe with its motto of "liberty, equality, and fraternity," they, like the English shrank from it in horror, fearful that the pernicious doctrine of the Jacobins would reach America and destroy the foundations of society. As the French Revolution merged into an Anglo-French war, they threw their moral support on the side of England, passing off the opposition of those who denounced England and supported France, with the observation that the latter were afflicted with Anglophobia. It was these privileged classes which had controlled the Constitutional Convention of 1787, dictated significant provisions which benefited the propertied interests, inserted safeguards against the anticipated excesses of mass rule, and secured ratification of that conservative document, against the opposition of a poorly organized and partially disfranchised majority of the American people. During the initial twelve years of the new government, and under the direction of such experienced and capable leaders as Washington, Hamilton, and Adams, this intellectual and financial aristocracy controlled every branch of the Federal government, and dictated both domestic and foreign policy.

In striking contrast was the opposing element, at first termed Anti-Federalists. They were the small farmers in the West, the small planters in the South, and the artisan class in the East. Racially they were predominantly of non-English extraction, and their political ideals were the product of the back-country environment. Before the Revolution they composed what Professor Dodd terms the "inarticulate" element of society—that part whose voice was never heard. They frowned on the bankers of the East to whom they owed debts, and land

speculators who would prevent them from squatting on the land. They opposed a constitution which plainly supported the interests of the propertied and creditor classes, while it blocked off hope of escape from debts through stay laws and the expedient of inflation through cheap paper currency. Strong in numbers but weak in organization, handicapped by political disfranchisement, and lacking in the prestige which accompanies wealth and intellectual mastery, they succumbed to ratification, followed by twelve years of Federalist rule.

In the meantime, however, Thomas Jefferson, the "first great democrat," consolidated their ranks, and raised their hopes for a new day, and may I say, "a new deal." As the storm broke in France, they thrilled with the emergence of the peasant class, the overthrow of the bluebloods, and the triumph of democratic principles—principles for which they had struggled in the American Revolution, only to see them slip out from under their grasp during the stress and strain of post-war reconstruction. In the exchange of epithets, they returned "monocrat" for "mobocrat," and "Anglophile" for "Anglophobia." They would come to the aid of America's recent ally, France, and help defeat her foe across the channel—the traditional enemy who refused to countenance the march of democracy.

Presented against that background, the events of the Federalist régime have meaning and become understandable. Furthermore, interest is inevitably enlivened, for a jumble of unrelated facts resolve themselves into a dramatic and enticing story, in which historical characters cast off the veneer of tradition and act like human beings. The pupil may catch a glimpse of Washington standing erect and dignified at one of the formal levees, attired in black velvet with a shining dress sword at his side; or witness the bowing and charging of glasses which attended a Federalist state dinner, while the Anti-Federalist Senator Maclay grieves in his diary that democracy has been betrayed.³ One understands now when Maclay confides once more in his diary that the highly intellectual vice-president, John Adams, is a "monkey-face," forever clutching at high-sounding titles, and reducing procedure in the upper house to a mockery of democratic institutions.

Turning to the less dramatic side of the story, the logic of the demand of those who had their misgivings about the centralizing features of the Constitution, that fundamental guarantees should be appended thereto to safeguard against tyrannical and arbitrary rule becomes apparent, and the Bill of Rights fits perfectly into the picture. The Hamiltonian financial program takes on new meaning; it is no longer a jumble of technical expressions to be

laboriously packed away in the student's mind like a French vocabulary. The motive behind each part of the program is obvious: a national bank to stabilize the currency, facilitate commercial intercourse, and provide a profitable investment for eastern financiers; the funding of the domestic debt and the assumption of state debts to rehabilitate the credit of the nation at home and abroad, and to rally behind the central government, the wealthy and influential classes of the country; the whiskey tax to provide an additional source of revenue, and to impress upon that class which had accepted the Constitution grudgingly the ability of the central government to execute the authority entrusted to it. In short, a program from which investors, security holders, merchants, and manufacturers would derive a pecuniary benefit, and of still more significance, a program which promised to fulfill the aspirations of the Federalists so to weld the states together into one centralized unit that it could successfully withstand the centrifugal forces which threatened to wreck the Union.

At the same time, it is easy to understand why the agrarians in the West and South branded the bank a gigantic monopoly created by governmental favoritism; why they denounced the funding program as a device through which the financial wizards of the East proposed to bleed the taxpayer; and why they resisted the whiskey tax as the crowning achievement of the commercial and industrial interests in exploiting the toiling masses of factory and farm.

Foreign affairs during the Federalist régime are likewise clarified in the light of the sectional and class conflict of the period. The importance of American neutrality in the first phases of the Anglo-French conflict was plainly conditioned by internal dissensions. In view of the intense division of American sentiment, both Washington and Jefferson recognized that assistance to either European belligerent would likely precipitate a civil war in the United States and wreck the infant republic. It becomes apparent to the thinking student that it was by more than mere chance that Genet landed as far south as Charleston on his mission to America, that he proceeded northward through the back-country amidst a rousing reception, only to receive a cold shoulder in Philadelphia at the hands of a Federalist President.

Similarly, the remainder of the major events from 1789 to 1801, as they unfold to complete the picture, can readily be placed in their proper relationships; the Alien and Sedition laws as important causes of the Federalist downfall and the "Revolution of 1800"; the Virginia and Kentucky Resolution, direct outgrowths of the Alien and Sedition laws, as expert propaganda designed to inspire the

opponents of centralization to overthrow the domination of the privileged classes; and the Judiciary Act of 1801 as a last minute attempt of the Federalists further to entrench themselves in one branch of the government, that they might save the country from the anarchy and ruin anticipated under the leadership of the alleged "atheist" from Monticello.

Assuming that history has been taught to afford an understanding of the past, the final task in the realization of the utilitarian motive under consideration is to relate the past to the present. Here the responsibility of the teacher lies in suggesting parallels between the problems and developments of an earlier period, and the current issues in American life of which the student has more or less knowledge through direct contact. In one sense, there is much truth in the old saying that history repeats itself, but unfortunately as a nation we do not seem thus far to have profited much from the repetition.

I recently read with much interest Professor Reznick's article on the first great depression in the United States over one hundred years ago.⁴ The author reports that the depression of 1819-22, followed a "period of extravagant speculation and apparent prosperity," which in turn had been generated by a long cycle of wars in Europe and America. "Business bankruptcies multiplied, prices fell, unemployment increased." The prospects for the winter of 1820-21 made President Hopkins of the Genesee Agricultural Society "... stand aghast at the prospect of families naked—children freezing in the winter's storm—and fathers without coats and shoes to enable them to perform the necessary labors of the inclement season." With Russian wheat crowding the European market, the price fell under twenty-five cents a bushel, and corn declined to ten cents. Property values dropped sharply; the burden of old debts and forced liquidation at sheriffs' sales ruined many. Those fortunate enough to salvage anything knew not where to trust the investment of their funds, and government bonds sold at a premium of ten per cent. There was much unrest and mutterings of revolt, says Professor Reznick, and the brokers of Wall Street were scathingly denounced by depression victims. In a desperate effort to balance the government's budget, offices were abolished, salaries reduced, and the pension list was cut in half. There was a persistent demand for inflation of the currency, and state legislatures toyed with bankruptcy and stay laws to relieve debtors. Finally, one anonymous writer of the day offered the prophetic suggestion that the only real cure for the depression was to encourage those who could afford it "to live and spend more liberally." What a picture of 1929-32!

Yet, with thirteen other depressions intervening and revealing similar characteristics, we entered the debacle of 1929 much as though it were a unique experience in our national life; and apparently history had taught us little.

Again, returning to my illustration of the Federalist régime, the fundamental forces at work in American society one hundred and fifty years ago are distinguishable even in 1933. We still have an industrial East struggling against agrarian West over tariff and currency issues. Debtors seek inflation today as relief from the oppression of creditors just as they grasped at paper money in the day of Alexander Hamilton. The attack by the West and South on the first Bank of the United States as a gigantic monopoly of the privileged classes designed to mulct the taxpayers of the country in the interests of a few, has its parallel in the invectives hurled against the financial racketeers of the present day, who bleed the small investor, and evade their income tax; against power trusts and business monopolies, which thrive on governmental favoritism, and the helplessness of the consuming public. In Washington's day, the farmers of western Pennsylvania rose up in revolt against an oppressive whiskey tax which threatened their means of subsistence; in 1932-33, farmers of the middle west rose up against an economic system which threatened ruin through low prices, high taxes, and foreclosed mortgages. The scenes shift, the personnel of the cast changes, but the throbbing drama of American life goes on, and the main threads in the plot are much the same today as they were one hundred fifty years ago. What seem to be new problems are simply old problems dressed up in modern clothes and disguised by modern terminology.

The illustration, the Federalist régime, which I used here to distinguish between the superficial method of teaching history, and that approach which will serve a utilitarian purpose, may be duplicated by examples from almost any period of American history. In the pre-civil war era from Jackson to Lincoln, which Professor Dodd has so aptly termed "Expansion and Conflict," the naïve and superficial type of treatment transforms an intensely exciting drama, depicting passions aroused by economic interests, sectional antagonisms, contradictory standards of morality, and conflicting social ideals, into a tiresome listing of such historical facts as the annexation of Texas, the Mexican War, the Compromise of 1850, the Kansas-Nebraska bill, the birth of the Republican party, the Dred Scott decision, the Lincoln-Douglas debates, the election of Lincoln, and secession. Any attempt at interpretation or generalization often establishes slavery as a wicked and abominable in-

stitution, the foul disturber of the national peace—state's rights and secession, the pernicious effusion of Satanic minds.

Such a cramped view of this period of sectional strife shuts out the broader and truer concept of two different and conflicting types of civilization based upon a difference in geographic and climatic conditions: north of the Mason-Dixon line, a democracy of small farmers, diversifying their crops, and employing free labor; south of the line, an aristocracy of planters, concentrating upon the production of staple commodities through the medium of the plantation system and its concomitant, the institution of slavery. Those important happenings listed above, from the Mexican War to secession, do not appear in their true perspective, and are robbed of their full meaning, if the sectional struggle is limited to a mere contest between slave owners and abolitionists, or between secessionists and nationalists overlooking the basic conflict between two different types of agriculture, two contradictory labor systems, and two antagonistic concepts of government—in short, two divergent types of civilization, each the product of a natural evolution of ideals in a certain geographical environment, and both endeavoring to live under the same roof.

Even the slavery issue has its modern parallel. Fundamentally it involved the problem of safeguarding slavery as a local institution. Southern statesmen bitterly denounced the meddlesomeness of Northerners in attacking an institution outside their jurisdiction. But as a matter of fact, slavery, without national protection in the return of fugitive slaves and opportunities for expansion in the national territories, would have soon died. And national protection, Joshua R. Giddings pointed out in his famous resolutions, embraced Northerners as well as Southerners, living under the common roof, whose feelings were wounded by the necessity of coöperating in the support of "a sin and a crime."

With prohibition we face much the same dilemma. Only with national assistance and uniformity does state prohibition promise to be effective. Yet national prohibition has been rendered difficult, if not impracticable, by a reaction of public sentiment. A state such as New Jersey, where the majority overwhelmingly demands repeal, resents the necessity of conforming to the will of the "dry" majorities in other states; while, on the other hand, any state which may elect to remain dry after the eighteenth amendment is repealed, with liquor flowing on all sides, will encounter a problem of enforcement which may prove insurmountable even with the federal assistance pledged by the repeal amendment.

A regard for one important motive in the teaching of history, then, rests on the assumption that the subject may be so taught that the rising generation will acquire sufficient knowledge and understanding of the complicated array of motives and forces shaping our national destiny, to enable it to cope intelligently with the present problems of organized society.

The full significance of history is comprehended only when one realizes that all progress has been a cumulative process, in which experience has been piled upon experience, thus enabling a twentieth century world to enjoy the beneficent rewards of multiplied centuries of toil and sacrifice. We marvel at the products of inventive genius which have made the world a better and more pleasant place in which to live. But while some of the greatest inventions had their inception in the mind of a single genius, only by improvements based on experimentation over decades of time, and under the direction of

many minds, have they been perfected. Likewise, there is no short-cut to social progress. It requires the tireless accumulation of knowledge, in which one generation builds upon the experience of those which have preceded. History, therefore, should stand at the apex of any curriculum of education set up by society, for it is the one subject which is dedicated solely to the objective of passing on the experiences of mankind. If it is to assume that exalted position in the estimation of the public, we must demonstrate its utilitarian values.

¹ Paper read at a meeting of the Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers, Des Moines, November 3, 1933.

² *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History in the United States*. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1926.)

³ *The Journal of William Maclay*, Edgar S. Maclay, ed. (New York: A. & C. Boni, 1927.)

⁴ Samuel Rezneck, "The Depression of 1819-1822, a Social History," *American Historical Review*, XXXIX (October, 1933), 28-47.

The Objective Selection of Curriculum Material in the Social Studies¹

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In few fields of the curriculum has there been as much ferment in the last decade or two as in the social studies. The movement for revision and reform began, as in other fields, with the feeling that the traditional curricula and texts contained much non-essential material and that much important material was omitted. The explanation of the unsatisfactory state of affairs was found partly in the failure on the part of curriculum workers and text-book writers to use scientific or objective methods of selecting text and curriculum materials. Because text-book writers and curriculum workers have relied on their *a priori* judgment and "arm chair opinion" much material of little or no social worth has been included in, and much material of crucial importance has been omitted from, the text-books and curricula. In reconstructing the social studies curricula and texts, therefore, we should determine by the objective analysis of human activities what the actual needs of the people are. We should "substitute scientific, objective methods for opinionated and empirical ones" for only "by an objective analysis of human activities can we determine what ought to be included in the curriculum."²

In the attempt to select text and curriculum material scientifically a large number of investigations

have been made. In practically all of them the method used has been the objective analysis of newspapers, periodicals, the writings of subject-field specialists, and the results of questionnaires. A critical examination of the several investigations shows, however, that in many cases they are far from being objective. Opinion and judgment are forever creeping in, though often in ways which are not easily recognized. Moreover much of the opinion and judgment appears to be rather bad opinion and judgment, and consequently the results which are secured by these so-called objective methods seem often to be of questionable validity.

How representative, for example, are the samples of books which have been analyzed in an attempt to collect the important problems and issues? Rugg claims that subject-field specialists have selected the "frontier thinkers" he has analyzed, or that the frontier thinkers through "their writings and the recognition already accorded them," have chosen themselves but this contention hardly bears scrutiny when it is remembered that one step in the compilation of his bibliography was "a canvass of several thousand books on the shelves of the Columbia University library," and that of the eleven-hundred-book bibliography compiled by

study of book reviews, canvass of the shelves of the Columbia University Library, and by questionnaire to subject-field specialists, about one hundred fifty were selected for analysis.³

Since Rugg's complete list of frontier thinkers has never been published, we have no means of knowing how fair a sample they are, but it is obvious that conservative, liberal, and radical opinion should all be fairly represented. This is commonly recognized by workers in the field. What constitutes fair sampling must of course be largely a matter of opinion, but Hockett's selection for analysis of Hobson, Tawney, Veblen, the Webbs, and Carver as frontier thinkers in economics would seem to be hard to defend, for of these all but the last are critics, more or less virulent, of the established order.⁴

Not only should radical, liberal, and conservative opinion be properly weighted, but the same should be done for subject matter. A good illustration of what appears to be faulty sampling of subject matter is found in Billings' study of generalizations. Of the six books of economics which he analyzed, three were general texts, one a critical examination of economic motives, and two, or one-third of the total, were on the labor problem, and the labor problem is only one of the several sub-divisions of the general field of economics.⁵

It is also obvious that the sample must cover a relatively long period of time. Otherwise many important problems, issues, and items of information may be omitted. Though this too has been commonly recognized by the advocates of objective analysis, not enough attention has been paid to it in those studies that have been published. An interesting example of the danger involved in drawing conclusions from an analysis based on a sample which covers too short a period of time is found in the work of Earle Rugg. After examining Bowman's comparison of the space devoted to different topics in magazines and in high school economics texts, Earle Rugg concluded that "transportation, labor, and business are topics that apparently 'crowd' the periodical space, but high school textbooks dealing with economics decidedly undervalue them," and that "the textbooks, on the criterion of reference to the topic in periodicals, are over-emphasizing large scale production and the monetary system."⁶ Only a superficial acquaintance with the history of our country is needed to recognize that monetary and banking problems have played an important rôle throughout our political history from colonial days on. Moreover it is largely because of the existence of large scale production and because of the way in which our monetary mechanism functions that the various maladjustments occur which give rise to the phenomenon known as

the business cycle. And certainly the business cycle is one of the crucial modern problems. But if we waive these considerations, the fact remains that in the years 1912-1921, the period covered by Bowman's study, the railroad and the labor problems were very much to the fore in this country. Now, however, it is the depression and the very same monetary problem over which the world is perplexed. The problems and topics found in a ten year sample of periodicals can hardly constitute an adequate criterion for judging the weight given to the several topics discussed in text-books in economics.

Even when the sample of reading material analyzed covers a relatively long time span, a vast number of facts and problems which are either of trivial or of transitory importance will almost inevitably result from the objective analysis of periodicals. Washburne's list of socially important facts in history and geography is striking evidence of this. His sample of reading material covered the period from 1905 to 1922. Indeed it is probably the most ambitious job of objective analysis of periodicals that has been made. In all more than 96,000 allusions were noted. It is hard to believe, nevertheless, that Peoria, Hoboken, Sing Sing, John P. Mitchel, Claude Manet, Charles S. Deneen, Medill McCormick, and William J. Locke are more important than the North Pole, Valley Forge, Jamestown, Benedict Arnold, Pasteur, Archimedes, and Greenwich, England.⁷ How, in such a study, the important facts and problems are to be differentiated from the unimportant on any basis other than the judgment or "arm chair opinion" of the curriculum maker is hard to understand.

After the problem of sampling has been solved, the objective analyst must face the problem of defining the categories or classifications under which he is to count allusions and space. And examination of the various studies shows that here again opinion and judgment often enter what may superficially appear to be objective methods of analysis. How, for example, did Bixler in her analysis of books and periodicals in an attempt to discover the social problems of the laboring class demarcate industrial relations, trade-unionism, and wages as headings under which to count space?⁸ And why did Bobbitt in his study of the major categories of man's activities as determined by analysis of reading materials lump the various sub-divisions of "government" under the one head "government," but split the economic and the social into their logical sub-divisions or constituent parts, such as labor, finance, commerce, etc.⁹ That a study which adopts such a classification should find that government headed the list of man's activities is not at all surprising. Had Bobbitt classified his material as government, economic, social, educational, re-

ligious, avocational, etc., the results of his study would doubtless have been very different.

Perhaps the most striking illustration of the difficulty of properly defining categories and of the significance of opinion and judgment in so-called objective analyses is the results of a study by Horn. Eight of Horn's graduate students analyzed one issue of the *Chicago Herald*, using Sharon's classification, and as Horn admits, the differences in results were "astounding." Five of the twenty-six different classifications are given below, and examination of them shows that they are enough to shake the faith of even the most optimistic devotees of objective analysis.¹⁰

Subject	Mentions Counted by the Eight Students							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Taxation	5	4	0	2	6	4	5	4
Money and banking	3	4	8	2	3	15	13	3
Monopoly and legislation	14	6	0	14	9	19	13	4
Foreign relations	29	12	4	12	20	18	36	12
Crime	5	12	1	13	0	0	10	0

Similar in nature and results is Hockett's study. In an attempt to verify the objectivity of his interpretation of the problems and issues in the books he analyzed, "another person was asked to read selected passages and mark and record the problems and issues encountered." In one of the selected passages the second person recorded nine issues and problems while Hockett recorded ten, and only seven of the problems and issues were essentially the same. Hockett recorded three problems which the second person did not, and this second person recorded two which Hockett did not. In a second selection the second person recorded twenty-eight problems and issues whereas Hockett recorded thirty-one, and only twenty-four of the problems reported by each were essentially the same.¹¹ If one of the important characteristics of the scientific method is that different investigators, using the same technique, ordinarily secure essentially the same results, it would seem that so-called objective analysis when applied in these and similar investigations is objective mainly in name.

Other illustrations of objective methods in which the subjective element plays a significant rôle, if it does not dominate them, are unfortunately not at all hard to find. Rugg tells us, for example, that objective analysis cannot be relied on implicitly, for it "is sometimes true, of course, that a question is important and must be included in the curriculum, even though it is not treated by even a majority of the specialists." Whether he falls back upon "arm-chair opinion" to determine what the questions are which are important though "not treated by even a majority of the specialists" he unfortunately does not say.¹²

In an attempt to ascertain which "of an enormously long list of location facts that compose a complicated world order" are "of universal, frequent and necessary utility to the great masses of our people," and "the relative order of their importance" Rugg and Hockett began by setting up certain criteria such as bank clearings of cities, foreign trade of countries, population, area, periodical allusions, etc. Unfortunately, however, when the investigation had reached a certain point "it was seen that some types of location facts were not adequately covered by the criteria employed," so "additional criteria were used in the manner described."¹³ It is not easy to escape the conclusion that this study was begun with the subject assumption that certain places should be included, and when it was seen that the objective criteria used were not giving the results desired, the criteria were changed to secure the desired results.

Equally interesting is the way in which Rugg and Hockett weighted their several criteria to obtain a composite index of importance. To use their own opinions would, of course, be not objective, so recourse was had to a consensus of opinion. "A conference of seven competent persons was held in which the whole study was explained and the rankings of items in the different classes according to the various criteria were inspected. Each person then independently assigned weights to the criteria used." But it soon became evident that a composite of the weights given by these competent persons could not be used, and it was necessary to assign different weightings to the different classes of locations. "It was also seen that only those who had handled the data throughout and who were intimately acquainted with every step of the investigation could intelligently assign these weights." Consequently the "assignment of weights was to a considerable extent a subjective matter involving individual judgment," though critics are assured that the authors were guided by the results of the conference with the seven competent persons.¹⁴

The way in which "tolerance" fares in two objective studies on desirable citizenship traits is striking to say the least. In Cocking's study of "what laymen regard as important problems or topics to be emphasized in the teaching of citizenship" tolerance was mentioned once, while duty to vote was mentioned 221 times, and in Lorenzen's study tolerance came third from the end of a list of forty-five fundamental social attitudes as rated by selected books on conduct and selected issues of the *American Magazine*.¹⁵

In view of the several considerations advanced above the position seems justified that in the social studies the activity analysts have given too much time to counting and too little time to a critical

examination of the assumptions on which their objective studies have been based. The reason for this is probably not far to seek, for the problem of the validity of assumptions is one which must be handled in large part by the arm-chair philosophizing with which the objective analysts have attempted to dispense. Examination of their work shows, moreover, that even in the counting of allusions and in the objective handling of the opinions of others, judgment and opinion play an important rôle. In selecting content for a text or curriculum we are still forced to guess many more times than the objective analysts would have us believe.

¹ For criticism and advice the writer is indebted to Professor Howard E. Wilson, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Harvard University. It was in one of Professor Wilson's courses, "The Curriculum in the Social Studies," that this article was originally written as part of a course thesis. This is of course not to say that Professor Wilson is responsible for the views expressed below.

² Harold O. Rugg, "How Shall We Reconstruct the Social Studies Curriculum?" *Historical Outlook*, XII (May, 1921), 185; "Needed Changes in the Committee Procedure of Reconstructing the Social Studies," *Elementary School Journal*, XXI (May, 1921), 699.

³ Harold O. Rugg, "The Methods and Aims of Committee Procedure," *Historical Outlook*, XII (October, 1921), 251; "Problems of Contemporary Life as the Basis for Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies," *National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 267.

⁴ John A. Hockett, *A Determination of the Major Social Problems of American Life* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927), p. 10.

⁵ Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum* (Baltimore: Warwick and York, 1929), p. 72.

⁶ Earle U. Rugg, *Curriculum Studies in the Social Sciences and Citizenship* (Greeley: Colorado State Teachers College, 1928), pp. 159, 166-167.

It would be interesting to know just what Bowman classified under the term "business."

⁷ Carleton W. Washburne, "Basic Facts Needed in History and Geography; a Statistical Investigation," *National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 216-233.

⁸ Summarized in Earle U. Rugg, *op. cit.*, pp. 15-17.

⁹ Summarized in Earle U. Rugg, *op. cit.*, pp. 70-71.

¹⁰ Ernest Horn, "The Application of Methods of Research to Making the Course of Study in History," *National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 254-255.

In the same source Horn has been careful to point out a further limitation of the use of objective methods in selecting the content of the history curriculum. It is "quite impossible," he says, "for one who is not a trained historian to determine what history is essential to the proper understanding of a given issue of any magazine. From the nature of the method of investigation, only isolated items of historical knowledge are likely to be ignored." (*Ibid.*, p. 252.)

¹¹ John A. Hockett, *op. cit.*, pp. 16-17.

¹² Harold O. Rugg, "Problems of Contemporary Life as the Basis for Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies," *National Society for the Study of Education, Twenty-Second Yearbook* (1923), Part II, 270.

¹³ Harold O. Rugg and John Hockett, *Objective Studies in Map Location*, (New York: The Lincoln School of Teachers College, 1925), pp. 32, 51-52, 67.

¹⁴ Harold O. Rugg and John Hockett, *op. cit.*, p. 67. See also *ibid.*, pp. 110-111.

A conference of seven competent persons, it should be noted, is quite able to solve a problem in weighting, but not at all competent to construct a curriculum in the social studies.

¹⁵ Earle U. Rugg, *op. cit.*, pp. 18-19, 97, 99.

The Use of British Textbooks as Collateral Reading

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The utopia of most history teachers is supplied with a plentiful amount of interesting material for supplementary reading. Educational leaders in American secondary schools are devoting much thought and effort to the search for such material, and at the same time almost entirely neglecting a most promising source of supply. If the teacher of nearly any subject turns to books published in England he will find his efforts richly rewarded. This article discusses the advantages of the use of these English books, and also considers the arguments against their use.

Histories published in Great Britain are especially useful for collateral reading in connection with two major topics, (1) The History of England and the British Empire, (2) The History of

the United States. The first is an important and perhaps the least objectionable use that can be made of British histories in our schools. Pupils prefer a history that contains details and not one which is scarcely more than a summary. Textbooks in any country tend to summarize the history of foreign nations, leaving more time for their own. Other reading is expected to supplement these accounts, and in this instance American texts dealing with British history can be supplemented by letting the students read the British textbooks. These will furnish not only a more complete account, but also a view of the English interpretation and of the English ideals.

Why not take advantage of this unique opportunity offered to two great nations? It is unique in

that it is the only example in history of the masses of two great nations using the same language. The ramifications of this proposal are evident. If those who foresee the possibility of a stronger friendship between Great Britain and America are right, a better knowledge of each other is the best way to promote such amity. If those who would teach that this is impossible are really proposing the wiser course, there is no better way to prove their contention than by teaching the children all the British history possible. The student who reads intelligently will not blindly accept the English conception of affairs. Instead, conflicting opinions which he thus encounters serve to develop the ability for critical and discriminating reading.

Topics that deal with the Revolutionary War may serve as an example of the advantage to be gained by the use of British books in connection with the history of the United States. Concerning this phase of their history some difference in viewpoint between the two countries is natural. It may be assumed, probably, that no one will now question the wisdom of acquainting the student with both points of view. If, however, there are any objections of this nature, the suggested use of foreign reading still seems advisable or at least preferable to the system now used. The pupil in the secondary school has passed the age at which he blindly accepts everything he reads. Any hint of inconsistency arouses his curiosity.

The writer recalls that while studying the history of the American Revolution in a secondary school he heard, not in the schoolroom, that the accounts of this war in British textbooks were very different from those in our own books. This aroused sufficient interest in his mind that he decided to investigate. Not having access to any foreign textbooks this curiosity could not be settled for several years. In the meantime his imagination supplied the details in which the texts of the two countries would probably differ. The result was that when he did read the British version he was surprised at the similarity of the two accounts.

In this country of many nationalities there are probably few pupils who do not learn that there are some differences in the interpretation of history by different nations. Would it not be better to acquaint the student with the facts at once? To wait is to encourage exaggerated or erroneous impressions; whereas if the references are available at the time the questions are presented it is possible to utilize to good advantage this interest on the part of the student. No uneasiness should be felt concerning the effect of such reading on the patriotism of the pupil. It is generally recognized, even among the more ardent nationalists, that loyalty at its best must be based upon an understanding of the

shortcomings and mistakes of one's country; it is recognized that he who sees only the excellence of his country is ill prepared to guard against its weaknesses. With nations as with individuals it is true that others see our faults more clearly than we ourselves do. It is also true that our confidence is frequently strengthened by merited praise.

The reading of British histories will do more than anything else to convince the student that the American Revolution was a noble and just struggle. Some aspects of America's part in the Revolution are criticised by British writers; perhaps their criticisms are just. The essential fairness, however, of these accounts written for the instruction of English children, is surprising to those who have not read British texts. They make statements that would be attributed to partiality if they appeared in an American book. This broadmindedness and fair treatment is a contrast to the manner in which American textbooks treated this phase of history, at least until recent years.¹

A study of these histories published in England will bring to the pupil a broader view of history than would be possible through a study of only American histories. The British do not emphasize the same phases of our relations with them that we do. The war of 1812, which was so vital to us, will serve as an example. Few people will realize how unimportant this war was to England, then in a real death struggle with Napoleon, until they try to find accounts of it in English histories. Many dismiss this Anglo-American war with a single sentence while those that devote more space to it seldom mention the results emphasized in American texts. The English opinion is that the most important result of this war was the binding of Canada more closely to the Empire by strengthening the Canadian group that was opposed to the United States. This is merely one example to show that the student interested in American history can get a clearer view of certain phases of the subject by reading British textbooks than in any other way.

The advantages of the use of British sources are not confined to the history of the past but apply as well to current history. Most schools make some provision for the discussion of present day topics. This discussion is frequently based upon material in the newspapers or magazines; but very few of our schools regularly receive a single copy of a British periodical. These can be made available for reading in the secondary schools of this country a little over a week after they are published. Many commonly used American periodicals are as old as this when distributed. Every good medium-sized or large secondary school has a few pupils that are interested enough in European affairs to read an English

paper; and there would be many more such pupils once such a paper was available. English newspapers contain far more news of events on the European continent than do the papers of even our eastern cities. These foreign papers are not slow to criticise American affairs and such a paper in any school would increase the interest in the class in current history.

It seems to be clear that much new and interesting material can be added to history courses through the use as supplementary reading of books written by British authors. This is especially true of the courses in English history, American history, and current history. This material, aside from being interesting, will aid in leading the pupil to form a clearer, broader, and better balanced view of both

English and American history. America should not fear this approach to the truth.²

¹ A good collection and comparison of quotations referring to the American Revolution can be found in Charles Altschul, *The American Revolution in our school Textbooks* (New York: George H. Doran Company, 1917).

² *Lists of Books, Maps, and Diagrams approved for use in Schools Maintained by the Council*, published by the London County Council, (P. S. King & Son Ltd., Orchard House, Great Smith Street, Westminster, S. W. 1. London, England, 1929. Pp. 185. Price 5s 6d postpaid), will be of much use to anyone interested in securing more information concerning British textbooks. The volume, the title of which is self explanatory, is a complete list including prices and names of publishers.

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The Function of the Historian

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The history with which an historian is primarily concerned is not contained in the textbooks used in the schools. Historians may write these manuals, but their content is not history or is so only in a limited degree. Indeed history is not, perhaps cannot be, taught in the schools. It might not be tolerated by parents and those in authority if it should be taught. Perhaps it ought not to be tolerated if it could be taught.

That which takes place in the schools under the guise of teaching history is really the inculcation of a species of patriotic religion. Pupils learn reverence for certain saints and ikons which later facilitates the task of rulers who mobilize them in orderly array. But the process of canonizing saints and setting-up idols for worship is too familiar to be recounted. Certain names and terms are endowed with fictitious characters which can easily be changed with the times. Little violence may be done to facts. No historian uses all the facts he has in store, and writers of school histories should not be blamed for selecting those adapted to their market. Nor need we condemn society for a disposition to perpetuate itself and a distrust of the ultra-critical or the revolutionary. It may not be prudent to tear down altars at which people bow until we know how to erect others in their stead. The Washington and Lincoln of the history books and the flag on the pole in the school yard are part of the ritual by which the country regiments its growing citizens and accustoms them to obedience. Whatever may be the case with a social scientist, an historian is ill

qualified to erect other altars should he succeed in tearing these down.

His eyes are ever turned toward the past. If he assumes to foresee the future he deserves little more credence than any other guesser. Habitual followers of races have a sounder basis for placing bets than a casual bystander. Those who follow sporting pages and frequent stadia on successive Saturdays may foretell the score more accurately than he who is reluctantly dragged to one football game in a season. But money ventured on an estimate of the outcome made in either case is more of a gamble than an investment. A prudent historian does not prophesy.

If it is part of the creed of a social scientist not only to bring an open and trained mind to the observation of facts but also to have faith that they can be classified and arranged to support assumptions properly called laws and worthy of acceptance as sure bases for action, there is a wide gulf between history and social science. An historian does not deny that such laws exist or object to a search for better modes of conduct. Either, when discovered, is grist for his mill. Meantime, with a skeptical twinkle in his eye, he withholds judgment. These quests are not for him.

Denied the privilege of experiment, his only test for hypothetical laws is induction. When causal observation indicates that every combination of social circumstances is unique and different from any other, he hesitates to reach a general conclusion. He may take it for granted that tomorrow

will be in a large part the outcome of today without being able to identify the things in today that will project into the future.

The eyes of the historian are turned backward. His work is analogous to that of travelers in a strange country gathering materials for books for the delectation of those who abide at home. One traveler frequents the homes of heroes, seeking interviews with the great. Another studies methods of manufacture and lingers in marts of trade. Another mixes with throngs in hours of leisure, observing the places to which they go for enjoyment. Another kneels in temples at religious altars or pauses at literary shrines. Each, returning, finds it difficult to tell the exact truth in the book he writes.

Unless he has previously trained himself otherwise, he sees superficially, through the eyes of a stranger. If he tries to acquire in a hurry the sympathy of a native for the scenes which meet his view, he risks submerging his critical attitude in one of sentimental sympathy, which hinders insight almost as much as his earlier ignorance. In fact, the traveler who would write, first has to learn how to see.

Since he observes chiefly by comparison, he can never see at all with absolute clearness. The images in his mind are the fruit of familiar scenes at home. The same figure crossing the range of his vision and that of a native in the land where he travels does not make the same picture for both. The response of each depends upon a variety of associations, suggesting speculations too various to begin here.

When he comes to write, he has to select. He cannot include all that he has seen. He cannot report all that he has felt. In prudence he cannot depend wholly upon his own taste. Books are intended for readers who have not seen, who, unable to see with their own eyes, wish to see vicariously. They are more easily attracted by something they imagine they wish to see than by another scene that might interest them more if they were actually on the spot. Thus the selection is determined in part by what the traveler has seen and in part by what he feels that prospective readers might like to see.

The chosen scenes have to be described in a language common to writer and reader; that is, in terms of the thoughts of the traveler before he went abroad. Yet the purport of the book is to report things he saw on his travels which the reader has not seen. The success of the writer depends upon his ability to tell his tale in a manner that inspires in the reader a feeling of seeing that which was hitherto hidden from his eyes.

Even so, the pictures suggested in the mind of

the reader may differ as much from those in the memory of the writer as that which he observed differed from the same scenes as perceived by one who grew up in familiar contact with them. If the author is successful his book is a work of art in which are fused elements from his earlier career, his experiences as a traveler, and his judgment of the tastes of his readers. From his book we may learn a little of what he saw in a foreign land, but we learn also of other things. We have no assurance that a different traveler making the same journey with the same good will to see and report would bring back the same word, though both might be as genuine products of a disposition to observe and tell the truth.

The historian is a traveler in time who reports in sequence related events that interest him and seem to him likely to interest some of those who abide in the present. No consideration of the metaphysical qualities of time and space is necessary to make it clear that a traveler in the former medium encounters difficulties not found in the latter.

A traveler from place to place sets out from the familiar and goes by one conveyance or other to the unknown, using the while most of his senses to apprehend the changing scenes he meets. He may satisfy his curiosity by seeing, hearing, touching, tasting, and even smelling. The historian gathers information with less equipment and under less favorable conditions.

In order to set out at all, he has first to project himself to a point of departure which he has not inhabited and cannot inhabit in the flesh. To reconstruct this point where his journey begins, he needs discriminating wisdom to choose from materials he finds those suitable for the purpose and a creative imagination for fitting these materials into a coherent picture.

Leaving this point, which is first reconstructed in his own mind, he travels toward another chosen as his journey's end which, when he reaches it, has to be reconstructed in a similar way with the limitation that it must seem to be an appropriate destination after his journey. The road he travels from this beginning to this end has similarly to be rebuilt from discovered materials selected and used in his discretion.

This is another way of saying that history is essentially a form of art, an expression of the creative imagination of historians. But the historian lacks the freedom of other artists—a poet or novelist for example. The latter may roam where he wills provided only the fruit of his labors seems to the reader to cohere in itself and to be appropriate and plausible for the chosen setting. The historian is restricted to surviving evidence. But

most things that happen in any time are merged in the general stream of circumstance, leaving no definite trace. Of most lives there is little or no record; of none is the record complete. Who can assure us beyond a doubt that the forgotten and submerged things were not more important than those living in memory? Who recognized the decisive word when it was spoken and set it down? For example, would the chronicles, written chiefly by monks, that bulk so largely as the foundation of our narratives of the Middle Ages in Europe tell the same stories if they had been written by barons and knights or even by influential members of the secular clergy? Even in modern times, when a historian is overwhelmed by the mass of relics and records, did the hand that changed the course of events always leave indisputable evidence of the deed?

Granted the doubtful hypothesis that sufficient evidence remains to tell the substantial truth about a given past if one had the will to find and the art to use it, the historian has still to travel a treacherous way to reach that goal. He depends at best upon a fragmentary experience of the thing he aspires to revive and describe. He can see a few things, touch fewer, and hear still fewer. The tastes and smells of a bygone age are beyond recall. Even the things he sees, hears, and touches come to him through the light and atmosphere of another day. A relic is real, but only as a relic, not as the thing it was to those who saw it new. In the tombs of those who made the records, fashioned the objects, and composed the music we have left is buried that which gave them life in their day. It is not quite accurate, of course, to say that sounds survive from the past. We have to depend for their reproduction upon hands trained in a different time and cannot know the sensations felt by those who heard in another age. Words themselves frequently had a meaning for the writer in the past different from that they have for a reader today. Indeed few sources of history are so treacherously deceitful as those written in the language of the historian.

These are among the difficulties of the historian with good will and honest intentions who undertakes to recount what he has seen while traveling in the past. He selects from materials he finds and reconstructs in his discretion not only the points from which and to which he goes but also the very stream of time down which he floats, or at any rate the scenes upon the banks by which he identifies the way. In checking the accuracy of his report we can only make sure that he can show the specific quarry from which he obtained every essential item he used in reconstructing the scenes he recounts and

insist that he arrange them in the chronological sequence of whatever were the happenings in the past.

This last stipulation is important. A mere chronicle of related events, even though arranged according to their order in time, is not history. But a jumble of seemingly related events without regard for that order is history in a less degree. Herein is the weakness of much that is put forward as history by apostles of the newer specialties—economic, cultural, or social history. Lacking the specific dates available for battles, constitutional laws, reigns of kings, administrations of presidents, and the like, these historians frequently use bits of evidence discovered decades apart in time as items in reconstructing a single scene. This is never justifiable unless it is plausible to assume that the attributed quality persisted to or survived from the date of the evidence at hand. The current habit of using a topical organization with very few specific dates frequently conceals the failure of the historian to arrange his materials in the order essential to make his narrative history at all.

Owing to the fragmentary character of the relics and records surviving from any past, the still smaller fragments a historian is able to discover and use, and the unsure criteria governing him in making selections from those he finds, it is unreasonable to expect him to establish all the causes of any event. His besetting danger is a temptation to attribute a causal relation where he discovers only a sequence. In prudence he should seldom ascribe causes and effects even where they seem apparent. They are not easy to prove beyond question. But we do have a right to insist that the historian arrange his facts in proper chronological sequence. This arrangement itself sometimes discloses relations not discoverable before. At any rate, a narrative wanting this order scarcely deserves to be called history.

Another difficulty vitiates much of the work of specialist historians. He who studies constitutional, economic, diplomatic, political, or literary history to the exclusion of any other adopts an hypothesis not easy to defend and selects his materials on a basis so narrow as almost to deprive the resulting narrative of the right to be called history. A particular segment of history, say the reign of Henry VIII, may make the point clearer. Few periods have troubled historians more, and on few is it more difficult for them to agree. The reign had important constitutional, social, economic, ecclesiastical, diplomatic, and personal aspects. The ambitions and policies of Wolsey and the King, for example; the relations between England and such continental countries as France, Spain, and the Empire; the

separation of the English Church from Rome; the redistribution of a large amount of property, especially in land; the addition of new elements to the ruling class; the use by such leaders as Cromwell of the council and parliament to bolster the power of the king; the rise of what one historian has called the "new monarchy"—all of these things have meaning and are a part of the history of the time. Facts relating to no one of these aspects of the reign make a picture that has a plausible verisimilitude when taken alone. Arranged together in chronological order all of the facts seem to be interrelated, and the total impression has a coherent semblance of reality lacking when any is left out.

Perhaps there was an element of truth in the confident assumption of the late Senator Beveridge that if historians could discover the facts, they would tell their own story. Granted! The trouble is that so many of the facts of the past are submerged in oblivion, leaving no trace that can be found and identified. The historian has no assurance that the discoverable facts were those that mattered most, even when he persuades himself that he has brought them all to light. If he could fill in with unrecorded happenings the lacunae between known events, he might tell a different story. Things apparently isolated and insignificant might then shine in a new light. Something like this does sometimes occur when materials are discovered filling gaps in the records.

Thus far we have dwelt chiefly on difficulties arising from the relics and records on which an historian has to depend. A more serious obstacle to the discovery of the truth about the past is inherent in the historian himself and the circumstances under which he works. He has to go to school like other folks, to learn the lessons of his time, to eat its food, wear its clothes, speak its language, suffer its disappointments, enjoy its pleasures, share its prejudices, bask in the light of its knowledge. All of this is as necessary as it is inevitable, both as he is a product of that out of which he has arisen and as he hopes to bring back to those in his environment news of the discoveries he makes while traveling in the past.

Yet when setting forth on his quest he needs to cultivate habits and to acquire qualities which differentiate him as an historian from what he might have been merely as a man. He has to learn how to be unpartisan, to consider sympathetically as an historian things of which he might not approve as a citizen, to understand and appreciate one side without losing the capacity to understand and appreciate another. He needs to be constructively critical, to develop a sound basis for select-

ing pertinent facts and for rejecting the non-essential or untrue. This is not easy, for he discovers that every record contains a trace of fact, while none tells the truth entire.

Having acquired these qualities, which are more likely to come after a lifetime of experience than as the fruit of immediate, intensive effort, he has scarcely begun his preparation as historian. He has somehow to make believe that he understands what it was like to live under limitations he cannot experience in a world in which he has never lived and cannot live. He has to imagine himself in ignorance of things he knows, unable to foresee that which has transpired. He has to turn time backward in its flight and watch it unfold again as the future, pretending that he knows not what will come to light. To put it still another way, he has to recreate in imagination, in a language he can speak and understand, a world in which his language was not spoken and could not have been understood if it had been.

Thus far, he has only got ready to write. He has merely collected the stuff of which history is made and tried to see for himself the picture he aspires to paint. Wisdom dictates some consideration for his market, for the readers he covets, lacking which it is scarcely worth while to write at all. These prospective customers for his goods live in the present, speak its language, are moved by its feelings. They have not traveled much in the past, at least over the route he has gone. They are strangers in the world of make-believe which has by this time become real for him. If he is to reveal to them anything of what he has seen, he has to translate it into a language which they can understand, to paint a picture within the capacity of their eyes to see.

Curiously enough, the historian's journey into the past may make it less easy for him to think the thoughts and speak the language of his contemporaries. He has seen things hidden from their eyes. His efforts to recover and understand a segment of the past engenders in him habits of thought and attitudes tending to give him a different perspective on current events. Issues of the day may not bulk as large for him as before, seeming to be ripples on the surface of time's deeper stream. Thus the historian, in the degree that he achieves the mood of the past, may lose step with the thoughts and feelings of those to whom it is his function, if he has any, to reveal what he has seen.

His final task is to translate the language of yesterday into the speech of today without losing its flavor, to paint pictures which represent in some degree what he has seen that are also intelligible to eyes more familiar with present scenes. Manifest-

ly he has to find some common ground on which to meet his audience.

One way to do this is to choose from the segment of the past with which he is concerned facts congenial with some problem or topic of current interest. Immediate economic, diplomatic, or financial questions may inspire an historian in selecting from the mass of happenings he discovers in the records those he thinks it best to report. Perhaps this is the readiest way to find a market, but it involves difficulties which hinder the work of the historian. If he plans thus in advance, eagerness to find what he seeks may tempt him to attribute fundamental relations where others might see only the casual and superficial. To select a topic on the basis of present interest or seeming importance tends to distort the perspective in regarding the past. This distortion impairs the results of the study as history and thereby invalidates any conclusions based upon it.

Another practical difficulty is in the way of selecting topics for historical study on this easy basis. Art is apt to be long, and the topic of current interest when the historian begins his search for facts has usually given place to another by the time he emerges with a story to tell. He does well, therefore, to avoid the ephemeral and to choose his subjects with regard to what seem to be the more abiding interests of his time. In any case, if his findings are accepted as more than a passing novelty it will be because his presentation of them gives the impression of intrinsic worth or has a pleasing form.

The matter of form, the last obstacle the historian has to surmount, is not unimportant. He needs all the skills, the fertility, and ingenuity of the literary artist, but requires some disciplines in their use not necessary for a poet or novelist. Facts which the historian gathers, even when arranged in chronological order and narrated with suggestions inspired by his labor and meditation, do not constitute history. He has to fuse them into a picture reflecting the likeness of what he saw in the language and atmosphere of the past and transfer it to a canvas where it may be seen and appreciated by those who breathe the air and speak the language of today. No historian is able to garner more than a small part of the past in which he immerses himself. A consummate artist does well if he conveys even a fragment of what he has seen to a reader who sees vicariously.

To recapitulate, we have a right to insist that the historian locate his facts in time and arrange them in orderly sequence. No art is permissible which obscures these essentials. This arrangement or the labor involved in achieving it may suggest further relations between successive events. These

too the historian may indicate in his narrative provided he does not neglect his primary responsibility of finding out and narrating events according to their order in time.

But no matter how thoroughly he is imbued with this idea, he cannot observe and report the whole truth about the segment of the past with which he deals. He merely selects from things he observes those that impress him more vividly and tries to represent them in a manner likely to interest the readers to whom he addresses himself. In that sense, every historian's history is a part of his own present. None can say of any time a last word adequate for all time. Two contemporary historians may not make identical reports on the same subject in a given time. Each has to see with his own eyes. We can only insist that he make his observations with honest intent and unpartisan outlook, that he search for truth with an open and critical mind, and that he report his findings in established chronological order with a due regard for form.

While acquitting the historian of the obligation—which in any event he could not fulfill—to report the whole past or the whole truth about any of its segments, may we not insist that he select topics for study with especial reference to the problems of his day in the hope of contributing to their solution? Why should he not set for himself the task of ascertaining those items in the experience of our ancestors likely to aid us in deciding on present action? If the historian could render this service, we might, without quibbling, qualify him as a social scientist.

But as historian he cannot render this service. To attempt it is to run grave risks of disqualifying himself as an historian. Nothing is easier than to find support in the past for any reasonable lesson one may seek to enforce. History confirms a preacher in his sermon of the hour. The infinite variety of past events makes it easy to find illustrations for his point. History may also be found to support the contrary. A political or social agitator cites history as easily as the Devil quotes Scripture. But an historian versed in his art is little moved by such lessons pointed on either side of a current controversy.

One of his qualifications for seeking the truth about the past is a recognition that it may be unlike his anticipations and may teach no lesson whatever. If an aspiring historian turns optimist and assumes progress or adopts pessimism and assumes retrogression—indeed, if he accepts any underlying principle as the determining factor in successive events he thereby becomes a philosopher of a sort and takes leave of his mission as historian. He usually finds evidence to support his theory. The theory itself may or may not be sound; in either

case it is excess baggage, impeding the work of the historian and hindering him in his search for an orderly arrangement of past events. Indeed, the only ground on which he can assume change as a universal law in time is the uniformity with which he and his fellow laborers report it to be the case. He has on that account no license to conclude finally that change may not some time cease.

This necessity that the historian cultivate an entirely open mind and his consciousness of the fragmentary character of what he is able to rescue from the past and reveal to his contemporaries stir in him a lack of faith in the finality of his work, even in its permanence except as he gives it the form of art. He cannot honestly offer his findings as a reliable guide to present action if he is qualified to be an historian at all.

An historian sometimes discovers in himself the growth of certain attitudes toward current questions which may be in part by-products of his study of history. He is apt to be a little conservative, readier to help in tinkering an old machine than to embark with confidence on widespread schemes of improvement. The stream of events seems to him to flow sluggishly in time. He has little faith that benefits will come from sudden change. On the other hand, however, he has to cultivate an open mind toward a millennium. If one should happen in his day, he would bravely begin to observe and set down the little of its antecedent events his inadequate eyes could see. He can never be sure in any time that the next turn of the road may not disclose something to upset the best laid plans of mice and men. As man and citizen, he may lend a grudging hand with the plans of the hour. As historian, he has to withhold judgment until he reaches the turn of the road.

This ability to withhold judgment is an essential part of his training as historian. Without it, he is not an historian at all. Having it with honesty, he appreciates that his view of any segment of the past resembles that of one of the fabled blind men of Hindustan who went to see an elephant. Each used as best he could his sense of touch, but none saw the elephant whole. Each got an honest impression based on creditable evidence, but no two of the resulting pictures were alike, though each had a foundation in fact.

Whatever may be the faith of the social scientist concerning current questions, the historian has no sure advice to offer. His counsel need not be despised. Like any man with an ordered mind, his judgment is sometimes sound. But a reader of history who seeks an explanation of the present or guidance on questions of the hour will be disappointed. It is unreasonable to expect the historian to perform this service.

Granting that the historian is thus helpless as a physician of social ills and that history is what, without an attempt to describe or define it, it is here indicated to be, is it of any use? Perhaps not to him who lacks a taste for it. The blind do not care for pictures, or the deaf for music. But for him who brings a curious and open mind history unlocks a storehouse filled with inexhaustible treasures. It needs no justification to the historian. He finds in it a rich life full of the joys of creation, exploration, discovery, depths penetrated, heights reached, with now and then a glimpse of the unfathomable mysteries of time. His handiwork is a form of art, revealing to those with eyes to see experiences they would otherwise be unable to share.

Some Criticisms of Word Lists with Particular Reference to History

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Within the last few years a number of word lists, sometimes designated as basic or special vocabularies, in the field of the social studies have been compiled.¹ It may be that the nature of these lists and the purpose of the compilers have not been stated with sufficient clarity, and in the case of history lists it is possible that some confusion has resulted from the failure of the compilers to state exactly what is meant by a history vocabulary.

Some of the lists are supposed to contain the words and terms which are indispensable for the understanding of a subject at a particular grade level. Others are designed to include the special words of an entire subject or field. These lists are based upon the judgment of the compiler, upon the combined judgment of a number of persons, or upon their frequency of appearance in a number of selected texts. The compilers have eliminated, or

reduced to a minimum, proper names and have included words which for the most part have present functional value.

The phrase "special vocabulary" seems to suggest a list of words and terms which are in some peculiar sense the possession of the grade, subject, or field. Fraternal orders, golf players, garage mechanics, musicians, sailors, doctors, and various other groups use at least a few words and terms whose meanings are not very clear to one outside the group. Persons outside the circle of golf players might need a glossary in order to comprehend the meaning of "slice," "birdie," "hole-high," etc. These words belong to the special vocabulary of golf. The words are simple and common but their use in golf is peculiar and specialized. In a strictly logical sense, then, it would seem that a special vocabulary is composed of words and terms with specialized meanings.

Thus the words and terms of a special vocabulary must have one of two characteristics: (1) they must either be the exclusive possession of the field and have no existence outside its limits, or else (2) they must within the field have a technical, peculiar, or specialized meaning, form, or use which they lose when employed elsewhere. The word "slice" is a common noun or a well-understood verb. Its use in golf, however, can scarcely be inferred from its common uses. It has thus become a member of a special vocabulary. In case a word fails to meet one of the two conditions it belongs not in a special vocabulary but in the reservoir of words common to all fields.

One of the list cited at the beginning of this article contains the words "dangerous," "ether," and "settlement." Are these words restricted to history or do they within that field have a peculiar or specialized use? Does one ignorant of history but acquainted with these words need a glossary or an example in order to understand them when they are *used in history*? Obviously no such assistance is needed. Their connotations in history are no different from their generally accepted meanings. Thus it becomes apparent that they are, according to strict logic, not constituent members of a special vocabulary. A similar observation would probably apply to a majority of the words in a majority of the lists.

It has been demonstrated that special vocabulary lists are not compiled upon the principle of the meanings or uses of the words. The term "basic vocabulary" introduces a somewhat different idea. It implies a qualitative selection. But one wonders—"basic" for which pupil for which degree, level, or kind of understanding? What is basic for one pupil may be unnecessary for another. The idea of a basic vocabulary seems to rest upon the assump-

tion of the existence of minimal essentials. There are probably some indispensable essentials in reading, arithmetic, and the other primary tool (with no implication that they are exclusively auxiliary) subjects. It may be a false analogy, however, to assume that a similar group exists in the social studies. There are so many roads to understanding and so much material, the mastery of a part of which leads to clear comprehension that one hesitates to say that there are minimal essentials in the social studies. Instead of searching for a "basic" list, perhaps it would be more profitable to admit that "widely used" or "commonly known" indicates the more attainable objective. Thus one concludes that neither special nor basic vocabulary lists are grounded upon the principle of the meanings of the words.

Since special and basic vocabulary lists contain word after word and term after term whose supposedly specialized meaning is adequately indicated in their common connotations, it becomes clear that some other principle than meanings has operated in their compilation. Most of the compilers were thinking in terms, not of the words and their meanings, but of *the groups which use them*. The lists then are compiled upon the basis of utility for designated groups. They exist to promote pedagogical economy. If this is the principle which has guided the compilers, their lists are not "special vocabularies" and perhaps they are not "basic vocabularies" but more exactly "words lists." This delimitation does not minimize the importance of word lists; it merely centers attention upon their true function instead of allowing their compilers and users to assume that they are dealing with words and terms with meanings peculiar to a special field.

Word lists serve several useful purposes. They come as near, perhaps, as any scheme thus far devised for capturing those elusive elements known as minimum essentials. Perhaps they actually will enable us to assemble the material which we can properly designate as *most widely used*. They have served as a reservoir of accepted terms from which to draw valid test materials. They seem to suggest a possible technique for grading materials. They have made teachers aware of the futility of using words whose meanings are alien to the pupils. By the exclusion of infrequent and difficult words they have simplified the pupil's approach to the subject.

On the other hand, word lists, like all good things, are subject to abuse. It would be unfortunate if teachers should employ word lists as a skeleton on which to hang their course of instruction. Such procedure would inevitably lead to memoriter drill, and at the same time it would inculcate the false notion in the minds of the pupils that they

knew and understood a word. Let us illustrate by recurring to the word "settlement" which has been cited as appearing in one of the history lists. What definition of "settlement" can the teacher give that will enable the students to answer the following questions? Did the forty men whom Columbus left on the island of Haiti in 1492 constitute a settlement? Did a group of men who passed one season each year on the Banks of Newfoundland constitute a settlement? Is a settlement a settlement on the basis of the degree of permanency? Can two people found a settlement; if not, how many does it take? Are women necessary in order to found a settlement? Is the motive of the settlers the basis of determining what constitutes a settlement? Must a settlement be compact as in New England, or did the scattered settlers in Carolina constitute a settlement? Does the word "settlement" have a different meaning when applied to the act from that which it has when applied to the result? These questions demonstrate that one cannot learn the meaning of a word by memorizing its definition. In fact, one cannot define a word or understand a definition when it is stated unless one knows some of the uses to which the word has been put. Humpty Dumpty in talking with Alice said, "When I use a word, it means just what I choose it to mean—neither more nor less." The fact seems to be that there are a sufficiently large number of Humpty Dumpties in the world to make it impossible for any one to restrict the meaning and use of a word. A static definition, although memorized to perfection, will not insure understanding. Thus it seems that word lists may become a source of danger by implying an apparent but false simplicity—a royal road to understanding.

Thus far we have considered word lists in the social studies. Let us now recur to the discussion as to the nature of a special vocabulary and restrict the consideration to the field of history. The point has been made that the appearance of a word within a particular field does not prove that it belongs to the special vocabulary of that field; consequently a distinction must be made between words which are *used in history* and words which belong to the *special vocabulary of history*. Any word from the common reservoir of a language may be used in any of the fields and yet not belong to the particular field in which it is used, in which case it cannot be regarded as a specialized word or as belonging in any peculiar sense to the field in which it is used. According to the principle stated in the third paragraph of this article, a history vocabulary, should there be one, must consist of words which are either the exclusive possession of history or those which have in history some technical, peculiar, or specialized meaning, form, or use.

Perhaps the matter will be clearer by recounting an experience which the author of this article had. Within the past few years he was employed to prepare some tests for the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. He set out to construct tests on terms used in the social studies. The terms so utilized were to be composed of common words of recognized, functional value. No proper nouns or factual items were to be used; thus the testee was not required to depend upon his specific memory. The plan was to take something like an equal number of terms from each of the four subjects, economics, political science, sociology, and history. Because of the comparative definiteness of meaning of many of the terms in economics, the items from that field were constructed without undue efforts or uncertainty. A similar result was achieved with the terms which were taken from political science. Because of the unstandardized nature of many of the terms used in sociology, they were more elusive and less manageable after they were captured. A reasonable number of sociological items, however, was eventually reduced to something approaching satisfactory form. The result in history, however, was somewhat unexpected and temporarily disconcerting. The difficulty was not found in the elusive meanings of the terms nor in the application of the testing technique. The difficulty was to find the terms. Functional terms which did turn up in Ancient, Medieval, Modern, and American history had, for the most part, already gotten in under the aegis of economics, political science, or sociology. At length it became apparent that history itself had exceedingly few such terms to contribute.

The paucity of functional terms in history is accounted for by the nature of the subject. It is a record of society in the process of development. A cross-sectional study of society at any particular time would present a number of economic, political, and social views, but a series of cross-sectional views arranged chronologically is history. History, then, is past politics, past economics, and past sociology, and naturally enough its vocabulary is borrowed from the fields whose doings it tries to preserve. History itself has no use for a special vocabulary because it has no existence when separated from the elements which belong to the other fields. The utility of a word is determined by its current use, and should it fall from current use history alone cannot give it vitality; history utilizes but does not create words of general functional value.

Usage determines the life or death of a word. The mere fact that it is in the dictionaries or that it was used in some past period cannot be accepted as evidence that it functions today. If a word has

utility it is sustained in one of two ways—either because it belongs to the reservoir of words common to all fields, or because it belongs to the special vocabulary of a particular field. Various fields have special vocabularies. The sum total of these special vocabularies plus the reservoir of words common to all fields is the measure of the total current vocabulary. Excluding words belonging to the common reservoir, it becomes apparent that words are kept alive by usage within special fields. Words having specialized meanings within the field of the social studies, for example, are kept alive because they are used in economics, political science, sociology, or some other current subject. With rare exceptions history cannot keep a word alive for any extended period no matter how necessary it seems to be for the understanding of a past characteristic, event, situation, or condition, for if even the word used to describe the past is in itself an unknown quantity, the past is likely to remain a closed book. This means, then, that the historian seeking to interpret the past must utilize words which are understood in the present. For a short time he may use a strange vernacular and force his readers to delve into the mysteries of a dead vocabulary, but he cannot long persuade any considerable number of followers that the results justify the labor. History, then, for the most part, must employ the words which are preserved not by itself but by other subjects.

Even though history cannot lay claim to any large functional vocabulary, it utilizes all kinds of words. Its chief concern in the past has been political history. Politics preserves and vitalizes a great number of words connected with government. Many of the words are very old. They have not only present utility but they have had past utility. It so happens that history can utilize many of these current political words to describe past conditions. The fact that they can be so used has led superficial observers into thinking of history as the vitalizing force. Similarly economics gives vitality to a number of words. Many of them were useful in the past and consequently serve historians, but the words do not thereby become the special vocabulary of history; it is their use in current economics that

gives them their vitality. The same principle prevails throughout the other subjects. Thus history uses a large vocabulary, including numerous words from the common reservoir and from all the special vocabularies whose fields come within the scope of history, but the words so used do not thereby become a history vocabulary.

What type of words do belong within the limited history vocabulary? It must contain no word which is sustained by other subjects, for we are seeking those words which are exclusively or peculiarly valuable in history alone. History has been able to preserve a few such words, for the sheer necessity of describing a strange past has enabled historians to preserve a few words, at least temporarily, for example, the cluster of words about feudalism, public officials, particularly in the history of Rome, and perhaps expressions of time. Rather than attempt to keep their subject up to date in the vocabulary of the present, they have compelled their readers to understand at least a small alien or obsolescent vocabulary. It needs no keen observer or discerning prophet, however, to foresee that death will eventually overtake such functional words as are utilized and preserved by historians only and that they can preserve only those which are relatively inert. It will be noted that the groups which might belong within a history vocabulary are largely non-functional, that is they have, outside the reproduction of the past, practically no utility. It thus becomes fairly evident that the historians may have a small vocabulary, such as any trade or professional group might have, but in the larger sense there can be no history vocabulary.

¹The following are cited as typical vocabulary studies: Stephenson, A. W., "The Special Vocabulary of Civics," *The Journal of Educational Psychology*, XVIII, 297-304; Barr, A. S., and Gifford, C. W., "The Vocabulary of American History," *The Journal of Educational Research*, XX, 103-121; Eubank, E. E., "The Concepts of Sociology," *Social Forces*, V, 391-394; Kelty, Mary G., "A Suggested Basic Vocabulary in American History for the Middle Grades," *The Journal of Educational Research*, XXIV, 335-349; Pressey, L. C., and S. L., "The Determination of a Minimal Vocabulary in American History," *Educational Method*, XII, 205-211; Pressey, L. C., "Fundamental Vocabulary in Elementary School Geography," *Journal of Geography*, XXXII, 78-81.

Longmans, Green and Company have in 1933 reissued at attractively low prices two standard works of an earlier generation which still command attention. They are Bishop Mandell Creighton's *Queen Elizabeth*, first published in 1896 (vii, 307 pp., \$2.00), and J. S. Corbett's *The Successors of Drake*, the third volume of his history of the Tudor Navy in Elizabeth's time first published in 1900 (xiv, 466 pp., \$1.75). Both books are of an established reputation, but the price commends them to those teachers who wish to supplement their own or their students' libraries.—B.

In the November *Harpers* Marquis W. Childs explains the system of controlled capitalism in Sweden, which has been attained during a period of thirty years or more by the cooperation of aggressive groups of consumers; by the active and intelligent participation of the state in important industrial fields such as power; by virtue of an impregnable labor movement; by a long process of social education. Oddly enough this process of education has touched the viewpoint of the capitalist sufficiently to secure his financial support.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

HOWARD E. WILSON, *Chairman, Harvard University*

NATIONAL COUNCIL MEETING AT CLEVELAND

The meetings of the National Council for the Social Studies held in connection with the annual February meetings of the National Education Association in 1934 will take place in Cleveland on Saturday, February 24. The general topic of the morning meeting (10:30 A.M., Assembly Room of Hollenden Hotel) will be "The Curriculum in the Social Studies: Commentaries on the *Fourth Yearbook*." Speakers include Edwin T. Reeder, of the University of Vermont, C. C. Barnes, Supervisor of Social Studies in Detroit, and Gail Farber, of the John Marshall High School. James B. Fenwick, East High School, Cleveland, Chairman of the Committee on Local Arrangements, will preside and guide the discussion following the addresses.

The luncheon meeting will be held at the Hotel Hollenden at 12:30 P.M. Charles T. Martz, Cleveland Teachers College, will preside. W. G. Kimmel, managing editor of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, will discuss "The Relations of the Social Studies Investigation to the National Council and *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*." Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University, will speak on "How Mark Twain Might Have Written History." Tickets for the luncheon are 85 cents; reservations should be made by February 23 with James B. Fenwick, East High School, Cleveland.

The afternoon meeting will be held at the assembly room, Hollenden Hotel, beginning at 2:30 P.M. The question for discussion is "What is Likely to be the Effect of the 'New Deal' on the Teaching of the Social Studies?" Speakers include George W. Eddy, South High School, Youngstown, Ohio; John J. Mahoney, Boston University, and Henry Harap, Western Reserve University. Discussion will follow the addresses.

At 6:30 P.M. members of the National Council are urged to join the officers of the association at dinner at the Hotel Cleveland. Dinner is informal; the charge is \$1.00 per plate. There will be general round-table discussion of the teaching of the social studies, with special reference to the question of what the National Council can do in 1934 for the benefit of social-studies teaching. All interested are urged to come; reservations may be made as late as Saturday noon with James B. Fenwick.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION MEETING

The Middle States Association of History Teachers held its annual meeting in Atlantic City, December 2, in connection with the Forty-seventh Annual Convention of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The theme of the morning session was social and economic planning. Professor Walter

Rautenstrauch, of the Department of Industrial Engineering, Columbia University, in "Fundamentals of Social Planning," outlined basic facts and problems faced by the United States at the present time. He also set forth certain criteria for planning and the orderly development of an integrated society, and differentiated between steps taken toward recovery and basic planning. A series of charts and graphs were used to present basic facts and relationships. Dr. Benson Y. Landis, of the Federal Council of Churches and author of *The Third American Revolution*, spoke on "The Present Program: Scope and Interpretation," pointing out certain elements of success as well as limitations of the plans being developed by the federal government.

At the luncheon session, Dr. Walter Consuelo Langsam, of the Department of History, Columbia University, and author of *The World Since 1914*, in "Economic Problems and Programs of Other Nations," discussed contemporary situations in England, Germany, and Turkey. Dr. Frances Morehouse, President of the Association, presided at both sessions.

W. G. K.

AN INTERESTING REFERENCE BOOK ON INDIAN HISTORY

The Historic Trail of the American Indian, published by the author, Thomas P. Christensen, Iowa City, Iowa (\$2.00 cloth, \$.65 paper), offers to history teachers a new and interesting summarization of much that has been learned of the Indian culture in recent years, and a picture of the Indian culture and development as a whole. The author refers frequently to the available anthropological and archaeological publications regarding Indian races in both Americas, presenting the conclusions he has drawn or accepted in a brief and readable manner. The book is usable for high school reference reading and presents helpful material in a field which has received little attention in recent years.

The Table of Contents indicates the range of material covered and the organization of the book:

- I. Introduction
- II. Pre-Columbian Culture
- III. The Pre-Columbian Tribes in South America
- IV. The Pre-Columbian Tribes in North America
- V. The Indian in Colonial America
- VI. The Indians in Republican Latin America
- VII. The Indians in the United States
- VIII. The Indians in Canada
- IX. The Eskimos in Historic Times
- X. The End of the Trail

J. E. S.

A MARATHON ROUND-TABLE PROJECT

The National Committee on the Cause and Cure of War, made up of representatives from eleven national women's organizations and federations of organizations, has for two years sponsored an interesting project which is of significance to students of social science. The program was initiated by Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt as the thrusting point of an attempt to vitalize and crystallize sentiment for the peace movement. The stated objects of the program were: (1) to learn how to discuss; (2) to find the best way for public opinion to function; and (3) to search for a bolder and faster moving program for the abolition of war.

The National Committee for the Cause and Cure of War appointed a chairman for each state who attempted to organize ten discussion groups in various state centers. These groups met once each week for six weeks, discussed certain suggested questions centering upon the furthering of the peace movement and forwarded resolutions and findings to the state and to the national meetings. In 1932 a total of 315 groups met in 32 states and enrolled a total of 3150 participants. In 1933 the Marathon Round Table movement is being pushed with vigor. In one mid-western city, two groups met in 1932; eight groups have met for six weeks in 1933.

The net result of the movement should be a greater number of citizens who understand better the outstanding problems facing the progress of world peace and who are ready to support and promulgate the peace programs of organizations such as the American Association of University Women more actively and understandingly. The organization of a plan for self-education by voluntary groups on such a wide scale is indicative of the growing attention to adult education and to the need of adults for the organized study of specific problems in our complex and rapidly changing world.

J. E. S.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION MEETING

The Progressive Education Association will hold a regional conference at Temple University, Philadelphia, on February 9 and 10, 1934. The theme of the conference is "Developing Social Responsibility through the Schools." Speakers include E. C. Lindeman, Lois H. Meek, Jean Betzner, Thomas Briggs, John Childs, Forest E. Long, Robert K. Spear, Vivian Thayer, Harold E. B. Speight, Armand J. Gerson, Philip A. Boyer, and William H. Welsh. All interested are invited to attend.

PLANS OF THE HISTORY REFERENCE COUNCIL

The History Reference Council, 14 Kirkland Place, Cambridge, Massachusetts, with a full-time research agent working in the Harvard University Library, is now embarked on two new plans:

(1) All the documents collected during six years have been classified according to subject matter. One file, for instance, contains first-hand documents on five medieval cities, Bruges, London, Paris, Venice,

and Constantinople. Another file has material concerning social life of different epochs, classified under Music (a collection of authentic songs from 900 A.D. to the American Revolution), Poetry, People, Art and Architecture.

(2) This year the Council is publishing a series of original documents concerning past economic and sociological crises similar to the one of today. The subjects of unemployment in the eighteenth century and the American bank crises and depression of 1837-42 are illustrated by letters, memoirs, etc., of the times. Lord Byron's maiden speech in the House of Lords, attacking the cruel bill which condemned to death the unemployed weavers who broke weaving "frames" is given. The bulletins include inquiries as to old methods of poor relief. Altogether the series, already in use in approximately two hundred elementary and high schools, should help both teachers and pupils to study the world's present dilemma in the light of living evidence from the past.

IOWA SOCIETY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers met in Des Moines on November 3 and 4, 1933. The officers in charge of the meeting were: President, Professor Ralph R. Fahrney, of Iowa State Teachers College; Secretary, Fred A. Pennington, Warren Harding Junior High School, Des Moines. Officers elected for the ensuing year are: President, Dean E. W. Thornton, Fort Dodge Junior College; Secretary, Fred A. Pennington, Des Moines.

President Fahrney presented a paper on the subject, "Utilitarian Motives in the Teaching of History," as the president's address which is delivered annually at the luncheon meeting. The Friday program included papers on "The Teaching of Current Problems in High School," by Miss Kathryn Meyers, West High School, Waterloo; "Recent Changes in Our Social Order and Their Significance to Social Science Teachers," by Professor C. F. Littell, Cornell College, Mt. Vernon; and "Recent Trends in the Teaching of Social Science," by Professor H. C. Hill, School of Education, University of Chicago. The two addresses of Saturday morning were: "John Marshall and the Constitution," by F. A. Welch, editor, *Midland Schools*, Des Moines; and "Trends in Social Sciences in Secondary Schools," by Dr. L. V. Koos, University of Chicago.

There is space here for summaries of only two talks. Dr. Hill pointed out ten recent trends in the teaching of the social studies as follows: (1) The changing conception of citizenship and of the way children should be trained for citizenship. Training in the mechanics of government is no longer considered adequate. (2) There is a tendency to stress objectives and to attempt to clarify the goals of social studies instruction. (3) A tendency to enlarge the emphasis on extra-curricular activities is evident. (4) The trend toward enriching the social-science curriculum by the addition of a wider range of material is marked. (5) The shift in emphasis is from a study of the history of remote times to that of more recent times. (6) Material is being more generally organized into large blocks or

units emphasizing trends and movements rather than facts as such. (7) Larger, fuller, and more adequate equipment is being demanded and is being produced. (8) Teaching procedure is tending toward laboratory, pupil-activity methods. (9) Greater correlation between social-studies subjects rather than blending or fusion seems to be the trend. (10) There is an important tendency to increase the time given to the social studies and to make the social studies an important part of the required core of the curriculum.

Dr. Koos based his remarks on the facts assembled by the National Survey of Secondary Education. He pointed out that there has been a rapid increase in social-science offerings in both junior and senior high schools and that the amount of required work in the social studies has increased markedly although there has been little increase in the total number of required subjects of all kinds in high schools. He discerned six trends in the content of the social studies, as follows: (1) A greater proportionate gain in social studies other than history has been marked. (2) There is evident a condensing of world history to a shorter course with disappearance of English history and marked increase in the time devoted to American history. (3) Many new courses such as community civics, vocations, international relations, sociology, and economics have become common. (4) There is a marked movement toward the integration of different social studies into a correlated course as well as increased correlation with different subject fields such as music,

English, art, etc. (5) A marked emphasis is evident upon recent periods in history and the teaching of more remote periods for the purpose of understanding contemporary life. (6) A spread in the scope of content within the social-studies field is indicated by the substitution of the word "civilization" for "history" in naming courses and texts.

J. E. S.

EDUCATION FOR LEISURE

In an article on "Preparation for Leisure" in *Sociology and Social Research* for November-December, 1933 (Vol. XVIII, No. 2), Bessie A. McClenahan of the University of Southern California writes: "As we approach a thirty-hour week, it becomes increasingly evident that only by a comprehensive plan that considers the wants of young people, that studies social and economic situations, that evaluates the community program in relation to increasing the participation of youth in civic affairs, shall we find the answer to the question of the moment, 'How prepare for leisure?' Her article lists the wants of young people as surveyed by a group of leaders of young people's clubs.

PAMPHLETS ON WORLD AFFAIRS

The *Foreign Policy Association* and the *World Peace Foundation*, New York, under the direction of Raymond Leslie Buell and Raymond T. Rech, announce the publication of a series of pamphlets on

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world affairs at twenty-five cents each. "The first aim of this new series will be to assist the citizen to understand the forces underlying contemporary international problems, and to acquaint him with the results of research in international relations."

The first pamphlet of thirty-five pages has a concise discussion on such topics as "The World Adrift," by Raymond Leslie Buell. It deals with topics such as "Hitlerism and the Isolation of Germany," "The World Depression," "The Roosevelt Program," and "Self-sufficiency versus World Planning."

N. E. B.

GENEALOGICAL MAP OF PENNSYLVANIA

Philip H. Dewey, Secretary of the Department of Internal Affairs of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, has recently issued an interesting and informative "Genealogical Map of the Counties." The map indicates the origin of the sixty-seven counties which make up the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. In many instances explanatory notes preserve the original spelling and phrases used in purchases and treaties. Copies of the map may be secured by addressing the Bureau

of Publicity and Information, Department of Internal Affairs, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

THE USES OF TEXTBOOKS

In *Educational Administration and Supervision* for November, 1933 (Vol. XIX, No. 8), John L. Bair of Kent (Ohio) State College, discusses "Social Studies and the Textbook Complex." In a penetrating fashion he points out that the educational goals set up for a group of studies as sensitive to contemporary life as are the social sciences cannot be attained by crystallizing course content between the covers of a textbook. The author urges the preparation of topical accounts and of pamphlets for use in place of a single text.

In the *Journal of Geography* for December, 1933 (Vol. XXXII, No. 9), Loula Upton of South Highland School, Birmingham, Alabama, writes on "How to Use the Textbook." Miss Upton recognizes the decided limitations of textbooks but reasons that bad use of textbooks is worse than the textbooks themselves. She offers a number of suggestions for improvement in their use.

Book Reviews

Edited by PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLETT BREBNER, *Columbia University*

A History of the Economic Institutions of Modern Europe. By Frederick L. Nussbaum. F. S. Crofts and Co., New York, 1933, pp. xi, 448.

When a person is asked to review a book like this one, he is tempted to give way to unrestrained praise. Professor Nussbaum of Wyoming University has made the American historical guild his debtor for having condensed into the short compass of five hundred pages the essentials of Werner Sombart's, *Der Moderne Kapitalismus* [4 volumes] and parts of that same author's *Das Wirtschaftsleben im Zeitalter des Hoch-Kapitalismus* [2 volumes] and *Der Bourgeois*, [1 volume]. This service is indeed highly laudable.

Professor Nussbaum makes no claim to having produced an original work. He admits honestly and frankly that he is interested solely in making Sombart known to Americans. This he has done and done well, and in addition, he has included in his book much new and important material that was not contained in Sombart's original works. The main adverse criticism that could be made of Professor Nussbaum's work is that his style is never brilliant and at odd moments is even cumbersome and tedious. But in any style Sombart is thrilling reading, and for this reason the reader is seldom conscious of the weakness.

A review of this book must of necessity be less a criticism of the work of the immediate author than of Sombart, and space does not permit an adequate discussion of that most interesting man; it only allows a mention of the main criticisms of him. It has been charged that Sombart has followed too closely the

shadow of Karl Marx and that *Der Moderne Kapitalismus* merely endeavors to prove the correctness of the historical formulae of the *Communist Manifesto*. This attack is not well founded, for, although Sombart was greatly inspired by Marx, he followed the great socialist mainly in stressing the importance of economic institutions and the necessity of studying their history. Instead so far has Sombart wandered from Marx that today he is "accepted" by the National Socialists.

Another criticism, and one that seems much more valid to the reviewer, is that Sombart is too "sociological;" that he theorizes too much and does not let the detail tell its own story. Sombart was interested in writing "institutional history" and did not present his material chronologically but institutionally. This manner of treatment would probably never have brought the wrath of the historians down upon him, however, had he not shown a tendency toward dogmatism and certainty, when more highly specialized scholars in particular fields disagreed with him. His greatest weakness perhaps is his over-formulizing and his lack of eclecticism.

Derogatory as the criticisms of Sombart by historians have been, his works are crammed with valuable detail and stimulating thought. Every page is a mine of information and every chapter a cause of reflection. No one, either student or teacher, should profess to know European economic history without having read, re-read, and pondered over Sombart. The reader of Nussbaum's version of the great German

scholar will be tempted, if not compelled, to turn to the original, for far from all the valuable detail has been included in the shorter volume.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

Le Lettere Di Girolamo Savonarola. Edited by Roberto Ridolfi. 150 lire. Leo S. Olschki, Florence, 1933. xciv + 268 pp.

Only eighty-five letters written by Savonarola or at his dictation, are today in existence, whether autograph, authentic copies, or those printed from manuscripts now lost or destroyed. For over half a century occasional biographers have added a few of these as appendices to their lives of the Friar and there have been also some collections of documents in which such letters have been included, collections too familiar to the scholar to be listed here. It has remained for Marchese Ridolfi, however, to sift these and the other unpublished material, separating the genuine from the spurious, the altered from the accurate. The magnificent volume which represents years of diligent research and exacting criticism has been awarded a prize from the Royal Italian Academy as an outstanding contribution to scholarship. The first part of the book, almost two hundred pages, is devoted to a minute discussion of each of the separate letters, a comparison of the existent copies where the original has been lost, a rectification of errors and in most cases, the restoration of the original text, a truly herculean task, as some of the copies were made by scribes who knew no Latin and others have been paraphrased out of all semblance to the original meaning. Others have been wrongly dated or incorrectly addressed. Not only has Marchese Ridolfi corrected such errors but he has added two hitherto unknown autograph letters which he discovered in the Guicciardini Archives of Florence, as well as contemporary copies of others, copies made by the great ambassador-scholar, Jacopo Guicciardini who was an ardent disciple of the great Dominican.

The letters themselves which follow this Introduction, are printed with no comments or documentation. They cover the years from 1475 to 1498, that is, from the time when Savonarola entered the Dominican Convent at Bologna until his death in Florence. The larger number of these belong to the last four years of his life, that is, after he took over the direction of the Florentine state. The earlier missives are either personal communications addressed to his family or spiritual exhortations to individual monks or to communities, and to a certain extent, not letters but tracts. The later group are largely political and are addressed to various potentates in Italy and beyond the frontiers to whom he was appealing in his struggle for independence both of congregation and of city.

Grouped together as they are in this volume they are important both in their factual knowledge and in the light they throw on the spiritual development of the Prior of San Marco. Unlike even the best of the biographies which have thus far appeared, they are utterly free from personal bias and from religious con-

viction. Even though they are fragmentary and incomplete they add immeasurably to our understanding of the conflict which ended so tragically in the Piazza della Signoria and show conclusively the stern individualism of the Friar, as well as his revolutionary conception of a state based not on submission to a higher temporal power, but rather on a destruction of the past and the inauguration of a new order.

The inclusion of some twenty reproductions of the letters, in every case quite as legible as the original manuscripts is one of the most valuable features of the book.

GERTRUDE R. B. RICHARDS

Boston, Mass.

A Political and Cultural History of Modern Europe.

By Carlton J. H. Hayes. New York. The Macmillan Company, 1932. vol. i, xix, 863 pp. \$3.50.

Professor Hayes has more than revised his well known textbook. Many sections have been entirely rewritten, much material has been rearranged and more than two hundred pages have been added. An important innovation has been made by ending the volume at 1830, a change which the author justifies by maintaining that 1830 is more satisfactory than 1815 as a dividing date between the earlier Europe which was essentially agrarian and the later Europe which became predominantly industrial. Part I, The Forming of Modern Europe, begins with political conditions about 1500 and includes chapters on the economic, intellectual and religious developments of the sixteenth century. Part II, Dynastic and Economic Statecraft, relates the familiar story of the dynastic and colonial empires of Spain, France, Austria, Prussia and Russia from 1500 to 1789. The British Empire down to 1763 is treated in the last chapter of Part II, while English internal developments under the Stuarts and early Hanoverians and also the American Revolution come later in the first chapter of Part III, an arrangement somewhat awkward for teaching purposes. Part III, entitled Revolutionary Developments of the Modern World, also includes chapters on the Intellectual and French Revolutions and on the eras of Napoleon and Metternich. It is significant that the word "social" in the title of the earlier edition has been changed to "cultural," for fully half of the additional pages are devoted to science, literature, art, and music. The author's interest in the history of nationalistic thought is apparent throughout but the subject has not been stressed unduly. The reproduction of numerous contemporary paintings, prints and maps adds immensely to the beauty of the volume, although many teachers will question the practical value of the contemporary maps. Both author and publisher should be complimented upon the production of an unusually handsome college text. Professor Hayes proved in his first edition that he could write interestingly and interpret broadly, but in the revision he has surpassed himself in both respects and has produced an eminently readable volume which is moreover the most complete and satisfactory synthesis of the period that

has yet appeared. The few minor inaccuracies do not detract from the scholarliness of the work. It is hardly correct to describe the Antwerp Bourse as a "stock exchange" (p. 90); Lyons was of considerable economic importance before Henry IV (p. 280); the description of the Navigation Act is more accurate on page 442 than on page 394; some would disagree with the statement that Danton was not "venal" (p. 621). Students and teachers alike will await impatiently the appearance of the second volume.

JOHN G. GAZLEY

Dartmouth College

Europe since 1500. By Hastings Eells. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1933. xiv, 618 pp.

This new one volume text of modern European history seems to be aimed to fit a brief survey course such as might be offered in the senior year of high school or in a junior college. It deals mainly with political events, but an attempt to include other elements leads to a certain disproportion, which is, indeed, the chief criticism that may be made of this book. It is, for instance, a serious question whether five chapters devoted to the reformation is not a great deal too much, when only one chapter is allotted to the "Revolution in Science and Thought" from 1500 to 1800, one chapter to the industrial revolution and its consequences, one chapter to scientific and social progress since 1800, one chapter to England in the nineteenth century, and so on. If an author clings strictly to political history, his book should not be criticized for its cursory treatment of other subjects. But when he attempts to include matter from other fields the question of proportion does arise and he may be called to account for almost ignoring economic history and skimming too lightly over social and intellectual developments. To take specific examples; the commercial revolution is treated only in three sentences, and then as one of the causes of the industrial revolution in England. The age of discovery gets a page and a half. Capitalism appears on the scene more or less full-fledged with almost no treatment of its origins and development. Seventeenth century England gets thirty-two pages, nineteenth century England twenty-three.

If, however, this book is treated as a purely political history, then its many virtues become at once more apparent. It contains in a clear and concise form a vast amount of material well welded together. It is divided into convenient assignments. Each chapter has attached to it a skillfully simplified map bringing out only the geographic features necessary for an understanding of the events dealt with in that chapter. The whole book is free from any apparent bias, and treats in a judicious and scholarly fashion of such controversial points as the origins of the Great War and the Communist regime in Russia. In short for a course in political history it should prove a very serviceable text.

CHARLES WOOLSEY COLE

Columbia University

In the Margin of History. By Sir Harry Luke. Houghton-Mifflin Co., Boston and New York, n.d. 270 pp. \$3.75.

For the lover of history, who is not so busy tramping down the main highroads in the wake of major events, that he finds no time to loiter along by-ways or turn odd corners in search of the curious and the little-known, this book will be a pure delight. With skill and simplicity, with judgment and sincerity, with humor and with authenticity it conducts the reader into some side streets of whose existence he has never heard, or of whose charm he has never guessed. The only criticism of the book is its brevity. A sentence tells the story of a drama, a paragraph relates a whole tragi-comedy, a page summarizes what might make the material for some quaintly exciting volume. Those who will like the book will love it. Those who will not like it, will wonder how any man could spend his time in the collection of such esoteric trivia.

A review can only hint at some of the wealth contained in this treasure-trove. It tells in brief of the French lawyer who became King Antony I of Aurica and created the Order of the Crown of Steel to defray expenses; of how the Free State of Counani was lost at cards, and later became a Republic, with a president and not one, but six honorary orders; of James I by the grace of God, Prince of Trinidad; of the French soldier who almost established himself as king of the Sedangs; of the emperor of the Sahara who enforced court etiquette in a London hotel, and of the hereditary king of Transcaucasia-Vitanvali. In more detail it traces the history of "freaks of freedom" in Europe, explaining how San Marino, Monaco, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, and Andorra came to be, and more curious still, how they came to survive. It gives evocative glimpses of little known states like Albania and Montenegro, and of almost unknown ones like Ragusa, Poljica, and Turopolje where all the inhabitants are nobles. For good measure the author tosses in a chapter on medieval visitors from the East to the Court of England, on Yvetot which really was a kingdom, on Aqaba where four countries meet, and on the diary of a naval chaplain who cruised the Mediterranean in the navy of Charles II.

If the reader finds the chapters on three German medieval cities, on Salzburg and on the Kaspar Hauser mystery a shade less enthralling, he will forget about it in his wish that Sir Harry Luke had told the story of Joseph Nasi the Jewish Duke of Naxos, or in his joy at such resounding titles as that born by the Vladika Peter II of Montenegro who was Metropolitan of Scanderia and the Sea-coast, Archbishop of Isetinje, Exarch of the Holy Throne of Ipek, Vladika of Iserna Gora.

CHARLES WOOLSEY COLE

Columbia University

Lord Jeffery Amherst. By J. C. Long. New York, Macmillan, 1933. xxi, 373 pp., \$4.00.

The more inquisitive historians of North America have from time to time referred to the fact that Wolfe's glory at Louisbourg and Quebec in 1758 and 1759

overshadowed Amherst, who was commander-in-chief in America and who brought about the conquest of Canada after it had almost been lost in 1760. Canadian historians, notably Wrong and Doughty (whose works seem to be unknown to Mr. Long) wrote intelligently about this, but the great mass of materials upon which final judgment could be based was not unearthed until 1925 when the Amherst Papers were discovered in the cellars of "Montreal," Amherst's house in Kent. Dr. J. C. Webster thereupon edited for publication the journals of William Amherst (privately printed, Shediac, 1927, 1928), of John Montrésor (transactions of the Royal Society of Canada, 1928) and of Jeffery Amherst (Toronto and Chicago, 1931). Finally Mr. Long embarked on a full-length portrait of the man whom he, as a loyal son of Amherst College, could not refrain from calling "Lord Jeffery Amherst, a soldier of the King" to the mystification of some English purists in nomenclature who did not know of Amherst College nor of its convenient recent re-claiming of the man who might have been, but was not, its founder.

Mr. Long has made some unnecessarily exaggerated claims as to the novelty and importance of what he has to offer, but these may be disregarded in the light of a distinctly fine achievement. He has brought Amherst to life, has drawn upon the Amherst papers to make a convincing and accurate picture of his careers on the Continent, in North America and in England, and has done so in suitable proportions. He has been

far more careful than most writers of would-be popular biography and has been remarkably successful in avoiding historical errors in a field which is full of pit-falls. His pictorial skill and his enthusiasm make for an interesting, attractive book which should be widely read. At the beginning he is inclined to be extravagant in language, to advertise his subject, as it were, but with chapter six he settles down to a sound, serviceable style which is nearer the truth and does not become at all dull thereby. He is also to be commended because he did not drop Amherst with his return to England at the end of 1763, but carried through the difficult task of making clear his subject's implication in politics, petty jealousies, and, most spectacularly, the Gordon Riots, in England.

Yet the reviewer should be permitted to enter two major *caveats*. While the temptation to "write down" Wolfe is pretty honorably resisted, the temptation to "write up" Amherst is not. This does not always matter, but in the siege of Montreal it leads Mr. Long to the absurd suggestion that Amherst's curious attack from Lake Ontario by shooting the St. Lawrence rapids was necessary in order to "block any retreat up the St. Lawrence from Montreal." One has only to remember what lay west of Montreal in 1760 to be sure that Vaudreuil would have made no such retreat. The real determinant, as Vaudreuil knew and Mr. Long apparently does not, was naval. The British Navy got into the St. Lawrence first in 1760, saved Murray at Quebec and sealed Vaudreuil's fate at Mon-

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trear. In the second place, anyone who has read Amherst's journal knows that he was a duller fellow than Mr. Long would have him be. It was no accident that Wolfe and perhaps even Monckton outshone him in popular estimation. His great merit was thoroughness and caution, his great defect an inertia which has been called cowardice. Mr. Long sees the dilemma in his first chapter. He could have given us a more persuasive picture if he had admitted the defects more consistently and thereby given verisimilitude to a thoroughly merited attribution of Amherst's successes and distinction to the very qualities which robbed him of dash and color.

B.

Economic Development in Modern Europe. By Clive Day. Macmillan Company, New York, 1933. pp. xiv, 447. \$2.50.

In this sketch of economic development, Professor Day, of Yale University, has attempted, as he states in his preface, to present for study the "two most important branches of production—agriculture and manufacture—and to suggest their relation to the political and social conditions of the times."

If it is on this basis that his book should be judged and not upon the presentation of a narrative of economic history, many weaknesses appear at once. The author treats his subject on national rather than on broad institutional lines and includes a discussion of only England, France, Germany, and Russia. This disadvantage might be overcome were it not for the fact that "social" considerations are limited largely to

conditions of the proletarian class and the temporary expedients used to improve them. No attempt is made to explain political events in the light of economic and social phenomena, except perhaps in the case of the Russian Revolution. The French Revolution, which is well known to have been a struggle for political power between the nobles and the bourgeois, is considered only in its effects on the economic life of the nation. Moreover, the exclusion of Italy from the discussion, precludes a consideration of the Corporate State—of this holding of capital on the one hand and labor on the other in check by a strong political organization based on nationalism. In the treatment of Post-War Germany no mention is made of Fascist economics as prefaced by National Socialists.

The effect of economics on politics is therefore largely minimized and the book resolves itself into a presentation of purely economic developments in the four countries mentioned. In this respect, the work has a certain value. Its story is simple and clear and for the most part as exact as brief treatments can be. Every chapter has a list of questions and suggested readings at the end and at the conclusion of the book there are more detailed bibliographies. These are complete enough to serve as an introduction to the subject and have the virtue of being up-to-date. It is the belief of the reviewer that this volume will not go far in replacing text-books of European economic history like Ogg, Knight, Barnes and Flügel, and Birnie.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH

Columbia University

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from November 25, to December 16, 1933

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, Arthur B. Our economic revolution; Norman, Okla.: Univ. of Okla. Press; 209 pp.; \$1.50.
Arnett, A. M. and Jackson, W. C. The story of North Carolina; Chapel Hill, N.C.: Univ. of N.C. Press; 506 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$1.00.
Bidwell, Percy W. Tariff policy of the United States [recent]; N.Y.: Council on Foreign Relations, 45 E. 65th St., 132 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$1.00.
Clark, Thomas D. The beginning of the L[ouisville] and N[ashville] R.R.]. Louisville, Ky.: 107 pp.; \$2.00. Privately printed.
Hedrick, Ulysses P. A history of agriculture in the State of New York. Geneva, N.Y.: N.Y. Agricultural Exper. Station; 475 pp.; (6 p. bibl.); \$3.00.
Hooker, Roland M. Boundaries of Connecticut. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 38 pp.
Morse, Jarvis M. [Connecticut] Under the Constitution of 1818; the first decade. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 20 pp.

- Richardson, Rupert N. The Comanche barrier to south plains settlement. Glendale, Calif.: A. H. Clark; 424 pp.; \$6.00.
Sydnor, Charles S. Slavery in Mississippi. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 283 pp. (7 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Conway, Robert S. Ancient Italy and modern religion. N.Y.: Macmillan; 164 pp.; \$3.50.
Edgerton, William F. The Thutmosid succession. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press; 52 pp.; \$1.00.
Edwards, Katherine M. Corinth; the coins; vol. 6. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 184 pp.; \$5.00.
Frankfort, Henri. Tell Asmar, Khafaje and Khorsabad, second preliminary report of the Iraq Expedition. Chicago: Univ of Chic. Press; 111 pp.; \$1.25.
Glanville, Stephen R. K. The Egyptians. N.Y.: Macmillan; 95 pp.; \$1.00.
Mohr, Louise, and others. Greeks and Persians of long ago. Chicago: Rand McNally; 288 pp.; 80c.
Winter, John G. Life and letters in the papyri. Ann Arbor: Univ. of Mich. Press; 316 pp.; \$3.50.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Brooke, Iris. English costume in the age of Elizabeth. N.Y.: Macmillan; 87 pp.; \$2.00.

Coate, Mary. Cornwall in the great Civil War and interregnum, 1642-1660. N.Y.: Oxford; 420 pp.; \$6.00.

Lambert, M. R. and Sprague, M. S. Historical sketch of Lincoln, England. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 258 pp.; \$3.50.

Peardon, Thomas P. The transition in English historical writing, 1760-1830. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 340 pp. (21 p. bibl.); \$4.50.

Rea, Lorna. The Spanish Armada. N.Y.: Putnam; 175 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$1.50.

Rogers, Richard, and Ward, Samuel. Two Elizabethan Puritan diaries. Chicago: Amer. Soc. of Church History; 5757 University Ave.; 161 pp. (3 p. bibl.) \$3.00.

Slater, Gilbert. The growth of modern England. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 653 pp.; \$4.00.

Wheare, K. C. The Statute of Westminster, 1931. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 134 pp.; \$2.00.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Brown, G. K. Italy and the Reformation to 1550. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 324 pp.; \$5.00.

DiCamugliano, Ginerva N. The chronicles of a Florentine family, 1200-1470. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 363 pp.; \$4.00.

Hoffman, Ross J. S. Great Britain and the German trade rivalry, 1875-1914. Phila: Univ. of Pa. Press; 375 pp. (24 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

Nenni, Pietro. Ten years of tyranny in Italy. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 218 pp.; \$2.50.

Pokrovskii, Mikhailn. Brief history of Russia. Vol. 2. N.Y.: Internat. Publishers; 348 pp.; \$2.50.

Roeder, Ralph. The man of the Renaissance; Savonarola, Macheavilli, Castiglione, Aretino. N.Y.: Viking Press; 548 pp.; \$3.50.

Walsh, Henry H. The concordat of 1801. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 259 pp. (3 p. bibl.); \$3.50.

MISCELLANEOUS

Archeological monuments of Mexico. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 164 pp.; \$3.00.

Hatch, Frida W. Status of the social sciences in secondary schools of Maine. Orono, Me.: Univ. of Me. Press; 114 pp. (2 p. bibl.).

Jackson, J. and King-Hall, S., editors. The League year-book, 1933. N.Y.: Macmillan, 481 pp. (4 p. bibl.); \$4.50.

Seligman, E. R. A. and Johnson, A., editors. Encyclopedia of the social sciences; Vol. 11, Morbidity—Parties. N.Y.: The Macmillan Co.; 660 pp.; \$7.50.

Tannenbaum, Frank. Peace by revolution; and interpretation of Mexico, [1910-1933]. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 316 pp.; \$3.50.

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Presiding: James B. Fenwick, East High School, Cleveland; Chairman, Committee on Local Arrangements

The Curriculum in the Social Studies: Commentaries on the *Fourth Yearbook*

C. C. Barnes, Supervisor of Social Studies, Detroit, Michigan

Gail C. Farber, John Marshall High School, Cleveland

Edwin W. Reeder, University of Vermont

Discussion

12:30 P.M. Luncheon, Hotel Hollenden

Presiding: Charles T. Martz, Cleveland Teachers College

W. G. Kimmel, The Relations of the Social Studies Investigation to the National Council and *The Social Studies*

Howard E. Wilson, How Mark Twain Might Have Written History

2:30 P.M. Assembly Room, Hollenden Hotel

Presiding: Howard E. Wilson, Harvard University; President, National Council for the Social Studies

What Is Likely to be the Effect of the "New Deal" on the Teaching of the Social Sciences?

George W. Eddy, East High School, Youngstown, Ohio

John J. Mahoney, Boston University

Henry Harap, Western Reserve University

Discussion

6:30 P.M. Dinner for Members of the National Council, Hotel Cleveland. Informal discussion of the work of the National Council

Mail reservations for the Luncheon before February 23rd to James B. Fenwick, East High School, Cleveland; reservations for the Dinner will be accepted until noon, February 24th.

Woodhead, H. G. W., editor. *China Yearbook*, 1933. Chicago: Univ. of Chic. Press.; 787 pp.; \$12.50.

BIOGRAPHY

- Hollis, Christopher. Erasmus. Milwaukee: Bruce Pub. Co.; 323 pp.; \$2.25.
 Chitamber, Jashwant R. Mahatma Gandhi. Phila.: Winston; 283 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$2.00.
 Lloyd-George, David. War memoirs of David Lloyd-George, Vol. 2, 1915-1916. Boston: Little Brown; 449 pp.; \$4.00.
 Booth, Edwin P. Martin Luther, Oak of Saxony. N.Y.: Round Table Press; 278 pp.; \$2.50.
 Malone, Dumas, editor. Dictionary of American biography; vol. 12, McCrady-Millington. N.Y.: Scribner; 657 pp.; \$12.50.
 Sargent, Daniel. Thomas More. N.Y.: Sheid and Ward; 299 pp.; \$2.50.
 Faij, Bernard. Roosevelt and his America. Boston: Little, Brown; 352 pp.; \$2.75.
 Brown Louise F. The first Earl of Shaftsbury. N.Y.: Appleton-Century; 361 pp. (26 p. bibl. and bibl. notes); \$4.00.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Dawson, Robert M. Constitutional issues in Canada, 1900-1931, 2 vols. N.Y.: Oxford; 331, 456 pp.; \$15.00
 Graham, Malone W. The League of Nations and the recognition of States. Berkeley, Calif.: Univ. of Calif. Press; 79 pp.; \$1.00.
 Jaffe, Louis L. Judicial aspects of foreign relations, in particular of the recognition of foreign powers. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 289 pp.; \$3.50.
 Johnson, Claudius O. Government in the United States. N.Y.: Crowell; 709 pp.; \$4.00.
 Kohn, Leo. The Constitution of the Irish Free State. N.Y.: Peter Smith; 423 pp.; \$5.00.
 Mitrany, David. The progress of international government. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 176 pp.; \$2.00.
 Moore, John B., editor. International adjudications, Modern series, vol. 6. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 442 pp.; \$2.50.
 Stewart, Dora Ann. Government and development of Oklahoma Territory. Oklahoma City: Harlon Pub. Co.; 446 pp. (8 p. bibl.); \$4.00.
 Taft, Charles P. City management; the Cincinnati experiment. N.Y.: Farrar and Reinhardt; 283 pp. (2 p. bibl.); \$2.50.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Universal Approach to History Study. E. D. Thomas (*Oregon Historical Quarterly*, December).
 How Not to Write History. Bernard De Voto (*Harper's*, January). "A note on the workings of the literary mind."

The Limits of Effective Cooperation in the Synthesis of History. F. M. Powicke (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, November).

Assembling Historical Manuscripts. Joseph Schafer (*Wisconsin Magazine of History*, December).

Cooperation in the Natural and Human Sciences. R. C. Wallace (*Canadian Historical Review*, December).

Nationalism and Internationalism. Capt. A. T. Beauregard (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, December).

The Boomerang of Persecution. Harrison Brown (*Fortnightly Review*, December).

Provisions for Minerals in International Agreements. W. P. Rawles (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).

A Decade of Research in Early Christian Literature, 1921-1930. Gustav Krüger (*Harvard Theological Review*, July-October).

The Meaning and Significance of Facism. Carmen Haider (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).

Where Was Troy? Charles Vellay (*Art and Archaeology*, November-December).

Egyptian Shipping. Sir Flinders Petrie (*Ancient Egypt*, March-June).

The Deputies Extraordinary and the French Monarchy. F. L. Nussbaum (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).

The Peasant in the French Revolution. Louis Gottschalk (*Political Science Quarterly*, December).

Some Aspects of the Present Military Situation Between France and Germany. V. W. Germaines (*English Review*, December).

The New England Way in Holland. R. P. Stearns (*New England Quarterly*, December).

The Minorities in Roumania. Elizabeth Sárváry (*Contemporary Review*, December).

The Tragedy of the Afghan Throne. George MacMunn (*Nineteenth Century*, December).

Brazil as a Field for Historical Study. W. R. Shepherd (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, November).

An Early Pan-American Scheme. J. B. Lockey (*Pacific Historical Review*, December). Wm. Shaler, 1812.

The Creation and Development of the Pan-American Union. C. B. Casey (*Hispanic American Historical Review*, November).

BRITISH EMPIRE

Parliamentary Printing, 1660-1837. H. H. Bellot (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, November).

R. M. S. *Titanic*. H. W. Baldwin (*Harper's*, January).

Irish Records, 1920-1933: a Survey. D. B. Quinn (*Bulletin of the Institute of Historical Research*, November).

Ireland in 1933: Retrospect and Prospect. H. A. Law (*Contemporary Review*, December).

The Partition of Nova Scotia, 1784. Marion Gilroy (*Canadian Historical Review*, December).

The Principle of Free Grants in the Land Act of 1841. H. M. Morrison (*Canadian Historical Review*, December).

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The Grand Strategy of the World War, II. Capt. Gordon Gordon-Smith (*Infantry Journal*, November-December).

The German Intelligence Service during the World War. Baron Guido Errante (*Coast Artillery Journal*, November-December).

The Austrian Official Military History of the World War. Maj. A. L. P. Johnson (*Infantry Journal*, November-December).

The First Battle of Romagne. Col. C. H. Lanza (*Field Artillery Journal*, November-December).

Night Battles, II. Lieut. Gen. Constantin von Altröck (*Infantry Journal*, November-December).

Operations of Company H 60th Infantry in the Meuse-Argonne Offensive, October 11-14, 1918. Maj. D. D. Howe (*Infantry Journal*, November-December).

The German Oesel Expedition in 1917. Beda von Berchem (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, December).

Mr. Lloyd George: the War office and Munitions. Col. G. F. B. Turner (*English Review*, December).

Historical Literature on Canada's Participation in the

Great War. W. B. Kerr (*Canadian Historical Review*, December). With bibliography.

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

The Significance of Western Pennsylvania in American History. A. P. James (*Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine*, November).

Interrelations between the Fur Trade of Canada and the United States. H. A. Innis (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, December).

Fort Caroline. T. F. Davis (*Florida Historical Society Quarterly*, October).

Social and Agrarian Background of the Pilgrim Fathers. G. E. Fussell (*Agricultural History*, October).

The Half Way Covenant. Perry Miller (*New England Quarterly*, December).

Building a Colonial Church. Reba C. Strickland (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, December).

The Prohibition Policy of the Trustees for Establishing the Colony of Georgia in America. H. B. Fant (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, December).

Washington's Adventure to the Ohio. Lt. Col. W. W. Edwards (*Infantry Journal*, November-December).

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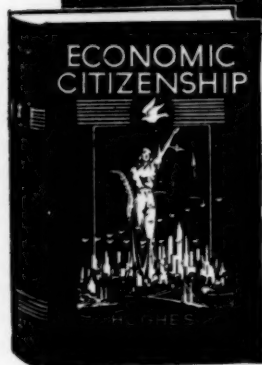
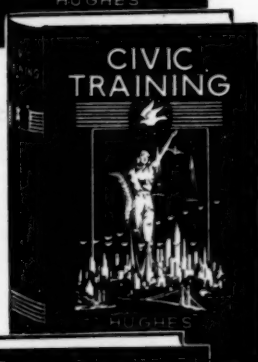
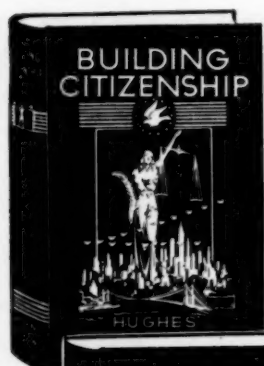
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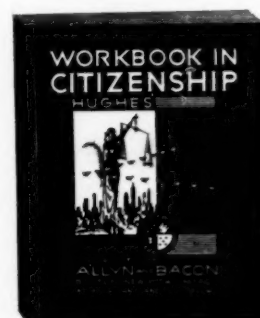
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